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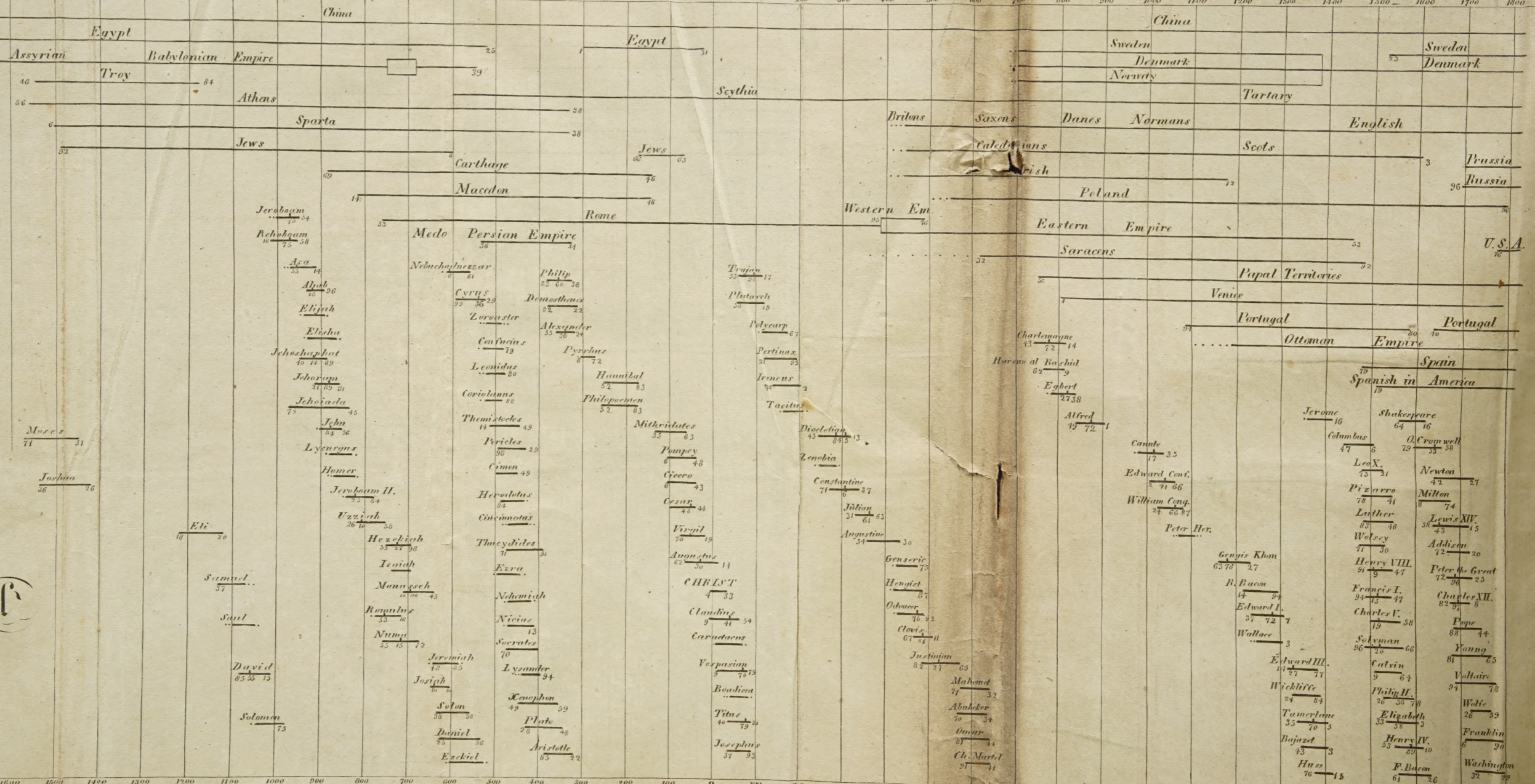
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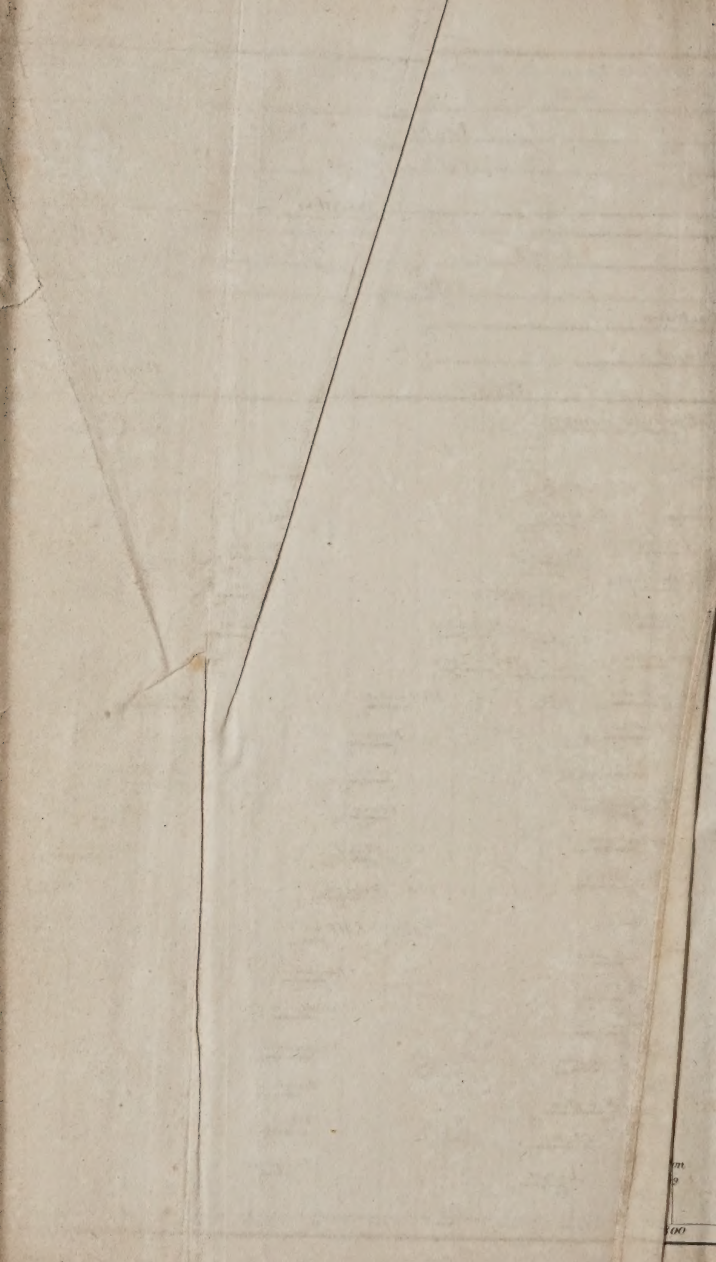
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IMPERIAL
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Biographical
CHART

1825.
Explanation p. 2.

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A

COMPEND OF HISTORY,

FROM THE

EARLIEST TIMES;

COMPREHENDING A GENERAL VIEW OF THE

PRESENT STATE OF THE WORLD,

WITH RESPECT TO

CIVILIZATION, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT;

AND

A BRIEF DISSERTATION

ON THE

IMPORTANCE OF HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE.



BY SAMUEL WHELPLEY, A. M.

PRINCIPAL OF THE NEWARK ACADEMY.



Tenth Edition.

WITH CORRECTIONS AND IMPORTANT ADDITIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS.

BY REV. JOSEPH EMERSON,

PRINCIPAL OF THE FEMALE SEMINARY AT WETHERSFIELD.

TWO VOLUMES IN ONE.

VOL. I.

BOSTON:

PUBLISHED BY RICHARDSON, LORD & HOLBROOK,

No. 133, Washington Street.

1831.

DISTRICT OF MASSACHUSETTS, VIZ.

District Clerk's Office.

BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the thirtieth day of June, A. D. 1825, in the forty-ninth year of the Independence of the United States of America, *Richardson and Lord*, of the said district, have deposited in this office the title of a book, the right whereof they claim as proprietors, in the words following, *to wit* :

“A Compend of History, from the earliest times ; comprehending a General View of the Present State of the World, with respect to Civilization, Religion, and Government ; and a Brief Dissertation on the Importance of Historical Knowledge. By *Samuel Whelpley*, A. M. Principal of the Newark Academy. Eighth edition. With Corrections, and important Additions and Improvements. By Rev. *Joseph Emerson*, Principal of the Female Seminary at Wethersfield. Two volumes in one. Vol. I.”

In conformity to the act of the Congress of the United States, entitled, “An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned ;” and also to an act, entitled, “An Act supplementary to an act, entitled, An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned ; and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving, and etching historical and other prints.”

JNO. W. DAVIS,

Clerk of the District of Massachusetts.

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1831

TO THE

REV. SAMUEL MILLER, D. D.,

ONE OF THE MINISTERS OF THE UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCHES IN
THE CITY OF NEW YORK, &c. &c.

REVEREND SIR,

WITH little more claim on you, than what the mass of society have on the benevolent notice of the learned, the wise and the good, I have presumed to inscribe to you, the following Compend of History; the chief merit of which, I am highly sensible, must consist much in the motive of the author. Destined by Providence to be intrusted with the education of youth, I have long regarded it as an important inquiry, what branches of knowledge and what modes of instruction are best calculated to benefit the young mind—what objects will be most likely to arrest the attention, enlarge the understanding, strengthen the memory, and promote virtuous dispositions.

Whilst, on the one hand, I have not the vanity to think, that I have made any important discoveries in this inquiry; so, neither am I discouraged, on the other, by the reflection, that the wise and learned in every age have been more or less engaged in the same inquiry. If the lapse of ages has corrected the errors of Lycurgus, Solon and Aristotle, it is presumed, that the most approved systems of the present day, having endured a similar test, will also be found defective.

The study of history is too much neglected in our present course of education; and I am strongly impressed with the belief, that children may lay a broad foundation for historical knowledge, while learning to read, and may become very generally acquainted with history, merely in a common course of school reading.

No species of instruction so easily or so deeply imprints itself on the memory of youth, as that which is clothed in simple narration and description; especially if that narration convey interesting facts—and if that description engage and delight the imagination. It has often been observed, that an early taste for reading is likely to enkindle in the mind a desire for general improvement; and, if I may be allowed to appeal to my own experience, the reading of history was the first thing which awakened in me a desire to study the sciences.

With these views, Reverend Sir, I have been induced to publish the following Compend. I have often found myself embarrassed in passing through so wide a field—with such rapidity. A selection and arrangement were desired, that would mark an unbroken line, and give the reader a just, general and connected impression. How far I have succeeded in the attempt, the reader must judge. Had I more leisure, or a better judgment, the work would have been more correct. But, as it is, I hope it will answer the purpose for which it is designed, and, especially, that it may be so fortunate, as to gain the sanction of your approbation.

MS. A. 1. 2. 16. 10. 21

While modesty forbids me to say many things, which the voice of sincerity would prompt, I deem it but just to declare, that as far as dedication may be regarded as a mark of high personal respect—as far as presuming on the benevolent patronage of men of learning and talents is ever safe—and as far as a writer may hope to benefit his production, by inscribing it to a name, which must long adorn the temple of science—so far I felicitate myself on this occasion;

And am, Reverend Sir,
with the highest esteem and consideration,
your most obedient
and very humble servant,
SAMUEL WHELPLEY.

EDITOR'S PREFACE.

It has been objected to Compendes of history, that they are dry, uninteresting and tedious. By most of them, this censure is undoubtedly deserved; and justly charges them with a fault of no ordinary magnitude. This is a fault which must almost entirely exclude them from being used, except by those, to whom, lesson by lesson, they are assigned, as tasks—as tasks by no means *delightful*. And when we consider, that it should be a grand and leading object in education to fix the thought, to wake the slumbering energies of the mind, to unfold the faculties, and kindle a thirst for knowledge, we can hardly suppose, that such *dreary tasks* will be found very useful.

From the charge of dulness, however, it is confidently hoped, that this Compend will be forever exempted. It is found to be exceedingly interesting both to the beginner, and to the proficient in history. Even after the second and third reading, it still continues to charm. Much of it is written with a pathos and energy, that would not have disgraced the pen of Chatham.

But this is not its only excellence. The facts are well selected, and, in general, well arranged. We have most to regret, that the work is so short.

It is hoped, that the value of this edition is considerably enhanced—that it will be found much more correct, in various respects, than preceding editions. A few sentences have been omitted, as unimportant. The greatest liberty has been taken with the Chronological Tables, as not being of Mr. Whelpley's composition. Several of them, which were conjectural, or of little importance to us, have been omitted. Much time has been spent to render the rest as correct as possible.

It is believed, that the notes will be found both interesting and useful.

EXPLANATION

OF THE

IMPERIAL AND BIOGRAPHICAL CHART.



IN this Chart, time is represented as flowing uniformly, an inch in three hundred years, from the year B. C. 2200, to A. D. 1825. The whole period is divided into centuries, by perpendicular, centurial lines, which are dated at top and bottom. The horizontal lines represent the duration of kingdoms, empires, republics or lives. The biographical lines are placed under the names of persons. The figures, placed at the beginning and end of these lines, express the dates of the commencement and termination of the person's lives, reckoned from the centurial lines, which are toward the Christian era. Thus, the biographical line under *Abraham* denotes the length of his life. The figures under it, in connexion with the centurial lines, denote, that he was born 1996 years B. C. and died, 1821 years B. C. The biographical lines of monarchs are distinguished by little perpendicular strokes; and the numbers under them, designate the commencement of their reigns. Thus it appears from the biographical line of *David*, that he was born B. C. 1085, began to reign, 1055, and died, 1015. And by calculation, we may learn that he was 30 years old, when he began to reign, reigned 40, and lived 70. The case of *Diocletian* is peculiar. He was born A. D. 245, began to reign, 284, abdicated, 305, and died, 313. The numbers attending the imperial lines, denote the times of the rise or fall of empires. Thus it appears, that *Troy* was founded, B. C. 1546, and destroyed, 1184, and by subtracting the latter from the former, we learn, that *Troy* stood 362 years. Dots denote uncertainty with regard to dates.

EIGHTH EDITION.

THE improvements of this edition have cost the editor much more labor, than all the preceding. He hopes this labor has not been spent in vain. He hopes the importance of these improvements will be found to correspond with their number and extent. This edition contains about one third more matter, than the preceding. A few pages have been omitted; but it is believed, that every thing of importance is retained.

It was felt and lamented, that there were considerable chasms in the original Compend. Some of the most important topics of history were scarcely touched by the author. He took it for granted, that his readers had a much better acquaintance with the subject, than they are generally found to possess. Several of these chasms, the editor has now attempted to fill. The subjects of most of the additions are printed in Italics, in the tables of contents, and the additions are enclosed in brackets in the Compend. These additions are rather compilations, abridgments or extracts, than original compositions. It is impossible now to ascertain from how many sources they have been drawn. Goldsmith and Morell, however, have furnished more materials than any other authors. The editor has also received peculiar aid from Dr. Holmes's "American Annals," an excellent work, which should, if possible, be in the library of every American, and of every scholar that knows our language.

The engravings are not designed merely to embellish the work. They will doubtless prove more conducive to impress upon the youthful mind, some of the great lessons of history, than as many pages of the finest description.

But the additions relating to chronology, will probably be found more useful than all the rest. If the editor has any claim to originality, it is in making the improvements, with which these are presented to the public. He deeply regrets, that he has not had time and health to render them more perfect. Such as they are, however, it is confidently believed, they will greatly facilitate the important and difficult study of chronology. It may be advisable for the teacher to question the pupil upon the Chart or Table, at almost every recitation. It is also recommended, that, as far as practicable, the chronologised name of every important date be written upon the margin of the page where the fact is recorded. Thus, *Romput* may be written upon page 134.

Three chapters of the Compend are transferred from the beginning to the end of the book. This is done, to render them more intelligible, interesting and useful to the young historian.

It affords the editor no small satisfaction to indulge the hope, that he may have been in some measure instrumental of promoting the circulation of a Compend of History, which he considers the most interesting, within so small a compass, that has yet appeared in an English dress.

J. E.

Wethersfield, June 20, 1825.

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METHOD OF TEACHING

THE FOLLOWING COMPEND.



1. LET the pupil read over the lesson assigned, to gain a general idea of the connexion. As he proceeds, let him carefully consult his dictionary and maps, as far as may be needful, in order to understand the words of the author, and the situation of places mentioned.

2. Let the pupil read over the lesson in connexion with the printed questions, marking the answers as he proceeds.

3. Let him commit the answers to memory. Let him be particularly careful to read and think them over *deliberately* and *understandingly*, that he may be able to repeat them with propriety.

4. Let two pupils ask each other the questions.

5. Let the pupil read over the lesson once more, to fix the connexion more perfectly in his mind, and to prepare to answer whatever questions the teacher may propose.

6. Let the pupil be required to answer not only all the printed questions, but such others as the instructor may deem important.

7. Let the pupil be required to recite his lesson with the greatest possible propriety, as it respects deliberation, pauses, emphasis, cadence, &c. By this means, he may be constantly advancing in the important art of reading. The indistinct, confused, monotonous, hurrying manner, in which scholars are often allowed to recite, can hardly fail to injure their reading.

8. The more difficult questions, especially such as are addressed to the judgment, rather than to the memory, may be addressed to the class generally, that any one may answer them, who may be able.

9. The instructor may find it very useful to intersperse or add a considerable number of observations, to explain, illustrate, confirm or enforce the most important parts of the lesson.

10. Let the exercise at the end of each week be a review. If the scholars are sufficiently forward in writing, &c., it may be very useful for them to recite their review lessons to each other; and give each other certificates in the following form—This certifies that Miss A—
B— has promptly and correctly repeated to me, answers to
Historical Questions, contained in the recitations of the present week.

Date.

C— D—.

11. It may be useful for the instructor to ask miscellaneous questions, relating to any part of history, that the pupil has studied, such as, Who was Ninyas? Who was Sennacherib? In what were the Persians superior to the Greeks? In what were the Romans superior to the Greeks? &c.

12. Let some chronological or geographical questions be asked at every recitation.

If the special efforts, that have now been made for the improvement of this excellent Compend, should prove instrumental of extending the noble and delightful study of history, of promoting a taste for literature in general, and of leading the minds of youth to a devout acknowledgment of HIM, who rules in the kingdoms of men, it will afford the editor his richest reward for all the toil of correction.

Byfield, May 1, 1820.

JOSEPH EMERSON.

HISTORICAL COMPEND.

CHAPTER I.

ASSYRIA.

BRIEF HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE ASSYRIAN OR BABYLONIAN EMPIRE, FROM ITS FOUNDATION, TO THE REIGN OF NINYAS.

THE history of the world, for the first eighteen centuries, is nearly buried in oblivion. From the creation, to the deluge, little more has reached us, than the genealogy of the patriarchs, together with a brief account of the vices of the antediluvians, and of the ruin which they incurred.

The first dawn of the light of civil history extends not beyond the foundation of the ancient kingdom of Babylon, or Assyrian empire; and even there, it shines with faint and dubious beam.

Nimrod laid the foundation of the city and of the kingdom of Babylon. The beginning of his kingdom, says the sacred historian, was Babel and Erech and Accad and Calneh in the land of Shinar. Nimrod was the son of Cush, grandson of Ham, and great grandson of Noah. The era, in which the foundation of this first of empires was laid, is fixed, by the concurrence of most chronologers, in the year of the world 1800, about a century and a half after the deluge.

B. C.
2217.

There is nothing known respecting the character and government of Nimrod, excepting what we find in the writings of Moses; and the account there given is very concise. He is called a *mighty hunter*, and is said to have had a kingdom, the beginning of which was Babel or Babylon. The probability is, that Ham and his sons, who

founded Babylon and Egypt, early rebelled against Noah, the great patriarchal head and natural chief of the whole race; whereupon Noah, and such of his descendants as adhered to him, moved eastward, crossing Persia, India, and China, to avoid the fury of this unnatural rebellion.

Noah would be most likely to emigrate, or to settle, with one of his sons on whom his prophetic benediction rested, and especially with Shem, whom he considered in the line of the Messiah. Elam, the eldest son of Shem, settled in Persia, and it is highly probable, that Noah himself went still further east. The great antiquity of the Chinese empire, their original character and manners, and the peculiarity of their language, both written and spoken, are proofs, that they are one of the most ancient nations and governments, and that their founders were among the wisest of the human race. To this, if we add the abundance of their traditions concerning the flood, and of things which with little alteration will apply to Noah, and to him only, we can scarcely doubt, that either that patriarch, or some of his descendants near his time, founded that empire.

To all this, if we add the silence of Moses' history concerning Noah after the flood, we shall be confirmed in the belief, that he actually retired from western Asia, the general scene of that history; and, for reasons equally strong, shall see no room to conjecture, that he moved northward into the cold, inhospitable wilds of Europe. That region was left to be explored and settled by some of his more hardy, enterprising sons.

The career of government began with simple monarchy. It was no doubt first suggested by the authority which nature gives the parent over his child; for, no sooner did experience show the utility of combining the strength of a multitude in one exertion, than the importance of a centre of union was seen. To give energy and system to any combination, to render it durable, wieldy and effective, there must be a directing head.

A discerning, ambitious man, clothed with patriarchal authority, might soon see numberless ways of extending his prerogative, and strengthening the nerves of his power. Indeed, before parental authority was amenable to a higher court, it is not easy to conceive of a monarchy more unlimited. In a number of particular families, the chief of each house would form a subordinate rank. They would naturally give place to the heads of tribes, and each of

them unite in one patriarch, or grand chief. Such, probably, was Nimrod. By what other means, less laudable, he raised himself to power, is only matter of conjecture.

We have already said, that Nimrod's achievements are not particularly known. He first employed his arms successfully against wild beasts, and became, as Moses styles him, a mighty hunter. He next made war upon his own species, and founded his empire in blood. But we remain ignorant of the extent of his dominions, or the duration of his reign. His son and successor was Ninus, whose name, together with that of Semiramis, is rendered famous by the exploits they are said to have done. Ninus built, or rather enlarged, the city of Nineveh, which is said to have been 60 miles in circumference, enclosed by a wall 100 feet high, and fortified with 1500 towers 200 feet high. Ninus engaged in many wars, and enlarged his dominions on every side, particularly eastward, for he is said to have led armies into India. Semiramis, his queen, who survived him many years, and reigned in great glory, rendered her name immortal, by an extraordinary course of splendid actions. Many superb structures and works of magnificence about Babylon, are ascribed to her; in the building of which, she employed two millions of men.

If historians deserve credit, ancient Babylon was the noblest city ever built by man. It stood on a fertile and beautiful plain, watered by the river Euphrates, which passed through the midst of the city. Its walls, which were carried to the astonishing height of 360 feet, were 87 feet in thickness, and enclosed an exact square, whose side was 15 miles; so that the city was sixty miles in circuit. There were 50 grand streets, that is, twenty-five running each way, on right lines parallel to each other. They were 150 feet wide, and, crossing each other at right angles, they all terminated in four streets, which lay round next to the wall on every side of the city, 200 feet wide. Thus the city was laid into 676 squares of 100 rods on each side. These squares were lined with numberless edifices, beside houses generally three or four stories high; and within the squares were innumerable delightful plantations, pleasure-grounds, and gardens. But this must be understood of the city, rather as it was in the days of Nebuchadnezzar, or Nitocris his daughter-in-law, than as it was in the days of Semiramis.

Though the city stood on a plain, yet the celebrated hanging gardens overlooked the walls. They raised a square of buildings four hundred feet on each side, internally supported by arches raised on arches, and without by a massy wall many yards in thickness. These works were carried up to the height of the wall, and over all a platform was laid four hundred feet square, formed by flat stones of an amazing size, over which were layers of reeds, then bricks cemented, and plates of lead, and then the earth for the garden, in such thickness as to support trees of the largest size. They were watered by an engine from the bed of the Euphrates. Brevity forbids, that we give a description of the tower of Babel, forty rods square at the bottom, and upwards of 600 feet high, or the moat which encompassed the walls, the bridge over the Euphrates, the palaces, and the subterraneous ways.

Many of these wonderful edifices are supposed to have been built by Semiramis. She carried her arms far into Ethiopia, and still farther into India, where she was at last defeated with a total overthrow by an Indian king. These early conquests were far different, both in their nature and consequences, from those afterwards made by the Greeks and Romans. They were more easily gained and lost. Indeed, the progress made by Semiramis, Sesostris, and others, through Asia and Africa, were little more than excursions of discovery. They moved at the head of an immense multitude, without order, or much resistance, and lived upon rapine and hunting. In these times, not only fortification, but the military art was unknown. Of course, wherever they went, they carried conquest; which was generally held by no other band of security, than the weak and savage state of the conquered.

But the accounts we have of those early times are, in sundry respects, exaggerated, especially with regard to the greatness of their cities and conquests. Herodotus affirms, however, that Babylon maintained her conquests 500 years.

Semiramis, after a reign of 42 years, abdicated her government to her son Ninyas. Few females have been more famous for their masculine virtues. Perhaps no one ever stood higher on the list of heroes and conquerors. As to those virtues which beautify and adorn the female character, historians have little to say of her.

Ninyas succeeded his mother. In what year of the city, it is not ascertained; nor is it a matter of consequence, since, from this period, the history of the Assyrian empire is utterly lost for more than a thousand years. Tradition has scarcely reported the names of the succeeding monarchs. They were extraordinary for nothing, but luxury, sloth, idleness, and the most horrid tyranny.

The provinces of the empire, during that period, had little more than a mere nominal subjection to those detestable tyrants; probably, for the most part, none at all; and, without doubt, the pomp of universal empire, was generally confined to the proud capitals, Babylon and Nineveh. The Trojan war took place some time after the middle period of the Assyrian empire. But Homer makes no mention of the Assyrian greatness; a fact, which, had it existed, could not have escaped his pervading mind, nor wanted a place in his historical, geographical, and martial poem. As the universal conquests of Sesostris, king of Egypt, are said to have happened a little before the Trojan war, Babylon and Nineveh must have lain central in his sweep of conquest, and it is not likely he passed them by, but that his eastern career of victory was begun by the reduction of those proud cities. Would he go to the conquest of India, and leave the Assyrian empire in his rear, powerful, independent, and hostile? The misfortune of the case is, that the glory and conquests of Sesostris are as dubious as those of the Assyrians; and they certainly could not have existed together. The Assyrian empire, first and last, was probably less in fact, than it is in history.



CHAPTER II.

THE ASSYRIAN OR BABYLONIAN EMPIRE, FROM THE REIGN OF NINYAS, TO THE FALL OF NINEVEH.

THE successors of Ninyas, the son of Semiramis, are little known in history. The seat of their government, or rather of their enormities, was alternately at Babylon and Nineveh. About 1450 years after the empire was founded by Nimrod, we find Sardanapalus reigning at Nineveh. If we may suppose, that the line of succession was unbroken, from the warlike Semiramis to him, he was the last of that

degenerate race of kings. From the silence of Homer, from the power and conquests of the kings of Egypt, from the figure Amraphel, king of Shinar, made in the days of Abraham, as stated in Genesis, and from the profound oblivion of the Assyrian history during so long a time, it is probable, that the Assyrian monarchy was broken, dissolved, perhaps annihilated, and that it must have undergone revolutions, exterminating wars, and petty tyrannies, at various times.

However that may be, in the time, and during the reign, of Sardanapalus, history seems a little to emerge from darkness. That prince being rendered weak and despicable by his vices, Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belesis, governor of Babylon, rebelled against him, defeated him in battle, and drove him into his capital, where he is said to have destroyed his treasures, and burned himself to death.

The result of this rebellion was the dismemberment of the Assyrian empire. The province of Media gained its liberty. A king, by the name of Ninus the younger, was established in Nineveh, and Belesis, one of the conspirators, became master of Babylon, as a separate kingdom. He is called in history Nabonassar.

The beginning of the reign of Nabonassar, which was 747 years before Christ, is supposed to be the first era, from whence the line of civil history can be with certainty drawn. Nabonassar was contemporary with Jotham king of Judah, and his era commenced within six years of the founding of Rome.

This revolution, although it rent the Assyrian empire in pieces, neither impaired the splendor nor magnificence of Nineveh or Babylon. Those cities now became the seats of independent princes, and distinct empires; and doubtless derived benefit from their new masters. But neither the history of the one, nor the other, is entirely known. From Nabonassar to the final subversion of the empire by Cyrus, was 210 years; during which period, considerable light is thrown on the subject, by the sacred writings.

Concerning two important circumstances, we shall notice, first, the repeated irruptions of the Assyrian kings into Judah and Israel, and their depredations on the neighbouring nations; and, secondly, their carrying away Judah and Israel into captivity.

We are told, 2 Kings, xv. 19, that Pul, king of Assyria, came into the land of Israel, and Menahem gave him a

thousand talents of silver, to conciliate his favour and protection. That this was a powerful invasion, we need no other proof, than the price with which the Assyrian king was bought off. This invasion, however, was 24 years before the era of Nabonassar.

Nabonassar, after a reign of twelve years, was succeeded by his son Merodach-Baladan, of whom little is known. This prince was in friendship with the Jews, and sent an embassy to congratulate king Hezekiah on the recovery of his health. From this period, the history of Babylon disappears, till the time of its union with Nineveh, under the government of Esarhaddon. But, in the mean time, the Assyrian kings of Nineveh were generally hostile and formidable to the nation of Israel.

Tiglath-Pileser, the first king of Nineveh after the partition of the empire, was called in by Ahaz, king of Judah, to assist him against the kings of Syria and Israel. He came with a powerful army, and put a period to the kingdom of Syria, by taking Damascus, its chief city. He severely scourged the kingdom of Israel, whose dissolution drew nigh; and proved a costly and dangerous ally to Judah, Ahaz being obliged to rob the temple of its sacred treasures, to appease his avarice. An account of this is given 2 Kings, xvi. 7. This was in the year 740, B. C.

About 20 years afterward, Shalmaneser invaded and subdued Israel. He besieged Samaria, the capital of the kingdom, three years; at length took it, and carried the Ten Tribes into captivity, and planted them in Media. This event happened about 250 years after the separation of Israel from Judah. From this captivity the Ten Tribes never returned. The probability is, that they soon mingled with other nations, lost distinction of origin, and will emerge to light no more. The inventive imaginations of theorists have discovered traces of them among the Turks, Tartars, American savages, and elsewhere. But when we consider the character of the Ten Tribes, their proneness to idolatry, and to incorporate with other nations, which, in their most pure and virtuous times, could not be prevented by their wisest legislators, even when they were a distinct and independent nation; when we consider the revolutions, tyrannies, barbarity, and ignorance of Asiatic tribes in all ages; when we consider the great length of time, and other auxiliary circumstances, we are strongly led to this conclusion; still allowing full weight and authority to ancient

scripture prophecy, from which nothing certain on this subject can be discovered.

After a reign of fourteen years, Shalmaneser died, and was succeeded by his son Sennacherib. An account of his formidable invasion of Judah, in the reign of Hezekiah, is particularly related 2 Kings, xviii. 13. He invaded Judah with a powerful army; in the mean time defeated the king of Egypt, who was coming to relieve the Jews, and would probably have taken Jerusalem; but his army was suddenly destroyed by pestilence. He returned to Nineveh, where he played the tyrant with so high a hand, that his own sons assassinated him in the temple of Nisroch; and he was succeeded by Esarhaddon.

During the reign of this prince, the royal family of the kings of Babylon became extinct, and there was an interregnum of eight years. The weak and disordered state occasioned by this enabled Esarhaddon, who was a wise and politic prince, to annex Babylon to his dominions. Thus, after a separation of sixty-seven years, these two powerful kingdoms again became one. But this union, together with its happy fruits, was of short duration. The final destiny of Nineveh was now fast approaching; a rival power was rising to maturity, and ready to burst, with utter destruction, upon that proud empire.

Esarhaddon, thirteen years after the union of Babylon with Nineveh, was succeeded by his son Nabuchodonosor.* This prince defeated and slew Phraortes, king of the Medes, in a great battle, and took Ecbatana, the capital of Media. This defeat, however, did not check the martial spirit or rapid growth of that warlike nation. It was left for the sons of the victors and vanquished to act the last scene, and conclude the drama of the first of the eastern empires.

Cyaxares I., the son and successor of Phraortes, was soon at the head of a numerous and well-appointed army. Determining to revenge the death of his father, he marched directly into Assyria, encountered and defeated an army thrown in his way, and immediately invested Nineveh. He would probably have taken it, but was obliged to raise the siege, and march in haste to defend his own territories.

* "*Nabuchodonosor* was a name among the Babylonians commonly given to their kings, as that of *Pharaoh* was among the Egyptians."—*Prideaux*.

The Scythians, a race of warlike savages, inhabiting the wilds of Europe and Asia, had driven before them the Cimmerians, a people equally savage, and nearly as terrible, dwelling near Lake Meotis. These, in numberless hordes, were depopulating the fertile fields of Asia, and had invaded the dominions of Cyaxares. The Medes were defeated by them in several battles, and the Scythians remained masters of most countries between the Caspian, Black, and Mediterranean Seas, a great part of Upper Asia,* for several years. We shall speak more particularly of them in our review of the Persian empire.

While the king of Media was waging doubtful war with the Scythians, Nabopolassar, governor of Babylon, revolted from the king of Nineveh, and set up an independent government. In this he was encouraged by Cyaxares, who had not changed his purpose of subduing Nineveh. Saracus, king of Nineveh, although menaced by such potent enemies, adopted no efficient system of defence; but, dissolved in luxury, and lost to all sense of glory, he supinely waited the gathering storm.

Cyaxares at length rid himself of the Scythian invaders, by a stroke of policy, which nothing but the emergency of the times, and manners of the age, could warrant. He invited the chief officers of the Scythian army to a general feast, prepared in various parts, where, in the midst of mirth and intoxication, his guards, and others appointed for that purpose, fell furiously upon them, and killed them all, without resistance.

Cyaxares once more invaded the Assyrian empire, assisted by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon. These two powerful princes accomplished the final subversion and abolition of the first Assyrian empire. Nineveh was taken and destroyed.

A sublime description is given of the fall of this ancient city by the prophet Nahum. From that, also, we may form some idea of its greatness and splendor. This event happened B. C. 600, and in the 147th year of Nabonassar's era.

The Assyrian empire rose, flourished, and fell, while the world was yet in its infancy. Few maxims of its government have reached our times; few incidents have escaped

* Upper Asia included Armenia, Pontus, Colchis, and Iberia.—
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oblivion ; and those which have are doubtless tinged with the stream of tradition, passing through long and bewildering tracts of time. From what we can gather from such dubious lights, we are led to conclude, that the fabric of the ancient monarchical governments, was very simple. It may be expressed in few words, *sovereign power*, and *absolute subjection*. Where the monarch chanced to be an amiable character, the condition of the subject was very tolerable ; but power so unrestrained, in the hands of a bad man, produced the most dreadful tyranny.

In every form of government, sovereign power must be lodged somewhere. Power, considered merely as corporeal strength, is naturally, in the hands of every man, nearly alike ; and the machine of government is a device, by which the power of many is combined and called forth by consent, in one great exertion. To call forth and exert this combination, the monarch has the sole power. He therefore can do whatever all his people, collectively, can do. His will directs their whole strength. In mixed governments, especially in republics, this national exertion is obtained, not by the will of one, but of many, who are chosen by the people for that purpose. But, in this latter case, individuals commonly find means to obtain the real, while, in the former, the monarch often holds only the nominal sovereignty.

The splendor and greatness of Nineveh, as of all other great cities in early times, consisted chiefly in their public buildings. The dwellings of the great mass of the people were little better than wretched hovels—without, unornamented, and within, unfurnished. Indeed, this is still the case in most of the great cities of Asia. Nineveh and Babylon contained little worthy of notice, except their walls, towers, temples, palaces, and superb structures of royalty. How incomparably more magnificent is the modern city of London or Paris, when viewed as the abode of men ! Here are seen monuments of every art and science ; the astonishing effects of commerce ; opulence and independence reigning among all classes ; the diffusion of knowledge ; the reign of science, freedom, and plenty. The private houses of modern cities appear to be the residence of a free people, enjoying no small portion of wealth, independence, and happiness.

CHAPTER III.

THE ASSYRIAN OR BABYLONIAN EMPIRE, FROM THE DESTRUCTION OF NINEVEH, TO THE TAKING OF BABYLON BY CYRUS.

BABYLON now remained unrivalled and alone. The city consisted of a mighty assemblage of the most amazing structures, temples, towers, palaces, and walls—works of incredible labour and expense, where millions had toiled, and groaned in painful servitude. These buildings were rather admirable for their stupendous greatness, than for elegance and due proportion in architecture. As for the rules and proportions in building, they were in a great measure unknown; and the different orders of architecture were yet to be discovered. They had nothing comparable with the temple of Minerva, or of Balbec. For the noble science of architecture, the world is indebted to the strong and mathematical genius and elegant taste of the ancient Greeks.

Nebuchadnezzar was now on the throne of Babylon; and the extent of his dominions was answerable to the splendor of his capital. But there were two cities, whose fame and opulence rendered them objects worthy of his ambition; one was Jerusalem, the other was Tyre; the latter of which was one of the strongest cities then known.

The siege of Jerusalem employed him two years; which, however, he at length terminated by the utter destruction of that noble city. In the 19th year of his reign, he burnt Solomon's temple, and carried the Jews to Babylon, where they remained 70 years. Four years after, he besieged the city of Tyre; the reduction of which was the most arduous enterprise of his life. Tyre had stood, from its foundation, 660 years; having never been taken by any foreign power. After the Chaldean army had suffered incredible hardships, and consumed 13 years in infinite labors, the city was taken; not, however, till the inhabitants had removed their principal effects to an island about half a mile from the shore. Here a new city rose, which soon eclipsed the glory of the former; a striking proof of the power of commerce. This new Tyre still flourished, and even far transcended its former state. When attacked by Alexander the Great, nearly three centuries afterward, it was able to resist the impetuous valor and unrivalled skill

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of that great commander; nor is it probable he ever could have taken it, but by making himself master of the sea. Of this siege we shall speak hereafter.

Nebuchadnezzar reigned prosperously 43 years. Something of his history and character may be collected from the sacred writings. He found no equal among the neighboring contemporary princes; he extended his conquests far and wide; was the greatest monarch of his time, and doubtless the greatest that ever ruled the Assyrian empire.

Babylon had now seen the zenith of her glory, and was soon to suffer a final and total eclipse. Four princes in succession, after Nebuchadnezzar, are remembered only to perpetuate their infamy, and to merit the just reproach of bringing ruin on themselves and their people. Evil-Merodach, Nebuchadnezzar's son and successor, was taken off by insurrection. He was succeeded by Neriglissar, his brother-in-law. This prince was soon slain by the armies of the Medes and Persians. His successor, Laborosoarchod, reigned only nine months, and fell by conspiracy. To him succeeded Belshazzar, in whose reign Babylon was taken by Cyrus. This great city, justly considered as impregnable to every open and direct attack, was taken by stratagem; which we shall relate in speaking of the Medes and Persians. Belshazzar was surprised in the midst of a public feast; was slain in the gate of his palace; and the kingdom of Babylon became extinct, being the last branch of the ancient Assyrian empire, 210 years after its separation from Nineveh.

Thus ended the second Assyrian empire, 1668 years after the foundation of the first by Nimrod. Babylon, however, still the noblest of cities, about twenty years after it was taken by Cyrus, revolted from Darius Hystaspes, then in the fifth year of his reign, and made preparations for a long and desperate resistance; but was again taken by stratagem. Zopyrus, the general of Darius, suffering his nose and ears to be cut off, fled into the city, pretendedly as a deserter. His military skill soon procured him a command in the city; he opened the gates, and let in the Persian army. A traitor should be suspected, but never trusted. Alexander intended to have made Babylon his capital. It only furnished him with an untimely grave. It has been desolated for many ages. The pleasant country around it becoming a morass by the overflowing of the Eu-

phrates, its place is not exactly known;* and it has lain wholly desolate, and without inhabitant, from generation to generation; literally fulfilling the predictions of Isaiah the prophet.

The ancient Assyrian empire, exclusive of its extensive conquests, comprehended much of what is now called Turkey in Asia; territories lying about the rivers Euphrates and Tigris. It stretched northward towards the Caspian and Black Seas, with a dubious boundary on Circassia; west and north-west, it spread towards the Mediterranean Sea, and met Syria and Palestine; south and south-west, lay the Persian Gulf and Arabia; and east, the ancient Media and Persia; though, indeed, all these territories, and many more, were, at times, subjugated to that monarchy.

In glancing an eye at the rise and fall of the ancient nations, it would be highly useful and interesting, could we develop, with certainty, the sources of their prosperity, and the causes of their fall. But if this inquiry is attended with inexplicable difficulties, in instances the most recent, how remote from investigation is it in the first governments which ever existed! National prosperity may be considered in two points of light; 1. When a nation, considered as a body, is powerful, respected, rich, and eminent in the view of surrounding nations; or, 2. When a nation is in such a state, that the individuals, who compose it, are prosperous, happy, and secure.

In some instances, these two kinds of national prosperity have united for a time; but those instances have been rare, and that union of short continuance. History presents many examples of the first. Such, indeed, were all the ancient monarchies; such was the empire of Constantine the Great, of Charlemagne, of Ghenghis Khan, of Charles V., of Louis XIV.—and we might come still nearer our time. But what histories shall we consult to find examples of the second? If we judge from the most probable sources of conjecture, concerning individual happiness, in those empires of most splendid figure in history, our conclusions will not be very favorable. Where millions are subject to the control and arbitrary direction of one, however good may be his intention, yet he will err, through vanity, through

* It is supposed that the place and ruins of ancient Babylon have been recently discovered. See *Hellah* in Worcester's Universal Gazetteer.—*Ed.*

weakness, through passion; but, above all, through ignorance. Vainly relying on his own sagacity, prudence, and foresight, he will use his power to its extent; he will form designs, and strike out projects, in the compass of which, the rights, if not the lives, of thousands and millions, will be crushed, and their sighs and groans never heard.

But nothing is more uncertain, than any comparison we can make of the happiness of nations; for, in all governments, sovereign power must be exercised by certain hands, either hereditary or elective; and, as all men are ambitious of power, it is a question, what form of government contains the most of private happiness. If popular governments are more equitable, they are, at the same time, most feeble, most liable to convulsions and revolutions, and of shortest duration.

CHAPTER IV.

MEDIA AND PERSIA.

THE PERSIAN EMPIRE, FROM ITS FOUNDATION TO THE BIRTH OF CYRUS.

THE Medes and Persians are considered as the descendants of Shem, the son of Noah, and of the family of Elam. There is little known of that great and powerful people, but from Herodotus, Xenophon, and the sacred writings. Their empire, in its full extent, reached from India to Ethiopia, and from the waters of India and Arabia to the Caspian and Black Seas. It was with them as with all the great empires of ancient times; their boundaries were frequently dubious, and always varying. Indeed the present empire of Russia is a similar instance, the emperor himself, and his ministers, scarcely knowing its real limits and extent; for which there is good reason. Their boundaries may be compared to those places, where the land and sea dispute for empire, and prevail by turns. Their subjection is but nominal; and such is their distance from the seat of government, so wild and ferocious their manners, that correct intelligence can hardly keep pace with the rapidity of their revolutions.

The Assyrian empire, the centre of which was about the river Euphrates, early subjugated all the different tribes

and nations, from the river Indus to the isthmus of Suez. Of course the Persian territories were included. But before the revolt of Media from that empire, the history of the Medes and Persians is unknown. It has been already noticed, that Arbaces, governor of Media, taking advantage of the weak administration of Sardanapalus, king of Assyria, formed a conspiracy, and concentrated a combination of powers against him, which proved his overthrow, and the dismemberment of his kingdom.

Babylon, Nineveh and Media became distinct and independent governments.* Of the history of the two former, we have drawn the outline. Indeed, little more has escaped oblivion, and reached our times. While those great powers were going to decay, the Medes and Persians, like most nations in their youth, acquired a military spirit; and, being uncorrupted with luxury and vice, they adopted happy methods of discipline and internal order, which could not fail of giving energy to their counsels, and success and renown to their arms.

Some time after the separation of Media from the Assyrian empire, Dejoces, a powerful chief of that country, erected it into a monarchy. He was a wise and politic prince. His character is highly celebrated by Herodotus and others. It is worthy of remark, that most nations, in the first of their career, are led and ruled by great and good men. We might instance Romulus† and Numa in Rome; Themistocles, Aristides, Lycurgus, Solon, Epaminondas, in Greece; Cyrus, in Persia; David and Solomon, in Judea; and, in later times, Charlemagne, in France; Alfred, in England; and we may add, Washington, in America.

Dejoces employed a long reign of more than fifty years, in civilizing his subjects, promoting the arts of peace, and reducing to practice an excellent system of policy, and

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* The opinion of Prideaux, that Nineveh and Media remained united under Arbaces, appears much more probable. "The ancient empire of the Assyrians, which had governed Asia above thirteen hundred years, being dissolved, there arose up two empires in its stead; the one founded by Arbaces, governor of Media, and the other by Belesis, governor of Babylon;—Belesis had Babylon, Chaldaea, and Arabia, and Arbaces all the rest." Prideaux' Connection; Vol. I. p. 1.—*Ed.*

† Some of these characters are by no means to be ranked among the good; especially Romulus, who was a fratricide, a robber, and finally a tyrant. Well might such a character be regarded by a nation of plunderers, as their father and their god.—*Ed.*

thereby showing himself worthy to reign. He left behind him a grateful memorial in the minds of his subjects, and a son and successor of a warlike, ambitious, and enterprising temper. Phraortes succeeded his father in the kingdom of Media. Few circumstances are recorded of him. He carried on wars with various success; subjected the Persians to his power; made war with Nabuchodonosor, the king of Nineveh, in which he was unfortunate, and terminated his career, together with his life, after a reign of twenty-two years.

This Nabuchodonosor is thought to have been the monarch of that name mentioned in the book of Judith, who sent Holofernes to invade Judea. The Assyrian empire was then much weakened, and fast declining, but was still too powerful for the Medes. In those ages, when the safety of a nation depended more on personal valor and military skill, than on riches and artful negotiations, the loss of a general battle produced very different effects on a rising nation, composed of hardy warriors, inflamed with a desire of conquest, and just beginning to be dazzled with the splendors of empire, from what it did on an ancient nation, immensely rich, voluptuous, effeminate, and drowning in its own luxuries. While, on the one hand, the Medes soon recovered their loss, and rose more terrible after the defeat and death of Phraortes; on the other, the defeat of the Assyrians before Bethulia, and the loss of a general and his army, seemed to break their spirit, and hasten on their final subversion.

Cyaxares I. succeeded his father Phraortes. He soon collected and drew after him an army composed of the fiery and unconquerable spirits from the mountains of Media. He pushed his conquests in every direction, united the barbarous tribes of Media under his standard, and soon became formidable to all the neighboring nations. But as his conquests lay chiefly among tribes and clans of uncivilized barbarians, we shall pass them over in silence.

The good fortune attending his arms, and the remembrance of the shameful defeat and death of his father in the Assyrian war, now roused him to seek revenge on that proud empire, which had so long tyrannized over many nations. He marched at the head of a powerful army toward Nineveh, encountered and defeated an Assyrian army thrown in his way, and laid close siege to the city. As the Assyrians were utterly unable to keep the field,

their only safeguard and dependence was the strength of their capital. But as nothing now remained of that warlike character, which distinguished and exalted their nation in former ages, the siege was likely to be of short continuance, and must have ended in the speedy reduction and utter ruin of that city, had not Providence designed to procrastinate their doom for a few more years.

Cyaxares was suddenly recalled to defend his own territories from the Scythians, who had poured down upon Media, and were likely to overrun all Western Asia. This is the first irruption of that barbarous people mentioned in history. It was upwards of 600 years before the Christian era. The history of that people is curious and wonderful. They seem to have been designed as the instrument of Providence, to scourge the nations of the earth.

The northern and eastern wilds of Europe and Asia gave birth to a race of men in early ages, more properly called an immense collection of wandering tribes and families, than a nation. Their manner of life, both in war and peace, has been uniform and perpetual. Their courage was invincible, their armies innumerable, and they seemed to spring from sources inexhaustible. Though extremely fierce, and devoid of mental cultivation, yet their policy, in its kind, was keen, artful, and profound. Their invasions resembled the emigration of an entire province. They carried with them their families and effects; and the shock of their impression was adequate to the overturning of the greatest empires. In the most vigorous periods of the Roman empire, they shook its foundations; and, finally, in one tremendous inundation, desolated the whole civilized world.

As ancient Media lay nigh the Caspian Sea, and bordered on what is now denominated Circassia, the dominions of Cyaxares lay directly in their way into the interior of Western Asia. He therefore marched with all speed, and gave them battle; but was totally defeated, and obliged to fly before a victorious enemy. But, as the circumstances of this war between the savage Scythians and the Medes, not much more civilized, are but slightly known, and would be wholly uninteresting, were they otherwise, we shall not dwell upon them. It shall suffice to say, that Cyaxares, after struggling several years, with various fortune, found means to destroy or expel them from his dominions. He is said to have caused them to be invited

to feasts, made in various parts of his kingdom, where, in the midst of intoxication, his guards, and other emissaries, fell upon them, and caused them to perish in a general massacre. The difficulties, however, attending so extensive and deep a conspiracy, leave room to doubt the authenticity of the story.

Cyaxares at length found leisure to renew his invasion of Nineveh. He met with little obstruction in opening the siege; and, as his efforts were aided by the king of Babylon, a powerful and warlike prince, with whom he had formed an alliance, the reduction of the city soon followed, as we have formerly noted.

Cyaxares pursued his conquests, leaving only Chaldea to the king of Babylon; and, having extended his territories, and enriched his armies with treasures and spoils of immense value, he returned to Media in great glory; where the enervating influence of Assyrian luxury soon became visible, and, among other causes, concurred in transferring the empire from the Medes to the Persians.

Cyaxares was succeeded by his son Astyages, whose reign was long and prosperous. Astyages was succeeded by his son Cyaxares II., called in the Bible Darius the Median. Dan. v. 31. Astyages had also a daughter, named Mandane, who married Cambyses, king of Persia. These were the parents of the great Cyrus, who put a period to the latter Assyrian, and effected the union of the Median and Persian empires.



CHAPTER V.

THE PERSIAN EMPIRE, FROM THE BIRTH OF CYRUS, TO THE CONQUEST OF THE LESSER ASIA.

THE legal heir to a splendid fortune, or to an imperial throne, has little honor in comparison with him, who, by the force of his genius, breaks the power of depressing circumstances, bears down all impediments, removes the various difficulties and embarrassments, with which weak men are encompassed, and carries along with him a whole nation to the elevated summit of empire. However much we may be disposed to ascribe it to a fortunate concurrence of events, it will appear, on careful attention, to arise from that astonishing power, some men have over others, of

combining and directing their exertions to proper objects—from their great energy of character—from their commanding and comprehensive views of human affairs—from their quick discernment in the choice of expedients—from their bold and masterly projection of grand schemes, and from their diligence and perseverance in every pursuit.

With such a genius Cyrus was endowed. He found his native country but small, and inhabited by an inconsiderable people. The territories of the ancient Persians, it is said by good authorities, comprehended but a small part of that vast country now bearing their name; which extends from the river Indus to the Euphrates. They were allies and dependants of the Medes, who, under Cyaxares the First, the great grandfather of Cyrus, had destroyed Nineveh, and subjugated many neighboring countries, as already noticed. West of them lay the kingdom of Babylon, immensely opulent, and still powerful, but declining under the administration of a dynasty of weak and vicious monarchs.

As the Medes had put a period to the first Assyrian empire, the Assyrians of Babylon viewed them with an eye of jealousy, and waited only for a convenient time to make war on so powerful and dangerous a neighbor. This soon presented; and Neriglissar, king of Babylon, having drawn into his alliance Cressus, king of Lydia, and many neighboring princes and tributaries, took the field. Cyaxares the Second had, just before this, succeeded to the throne of his father Astyages. He was alarmed at the prospect of so formidable a war, which seemed likely to overwhelm his dominions. He immediately sent to Cambyses, king of Persia, requesting that Cyrus might be sent to his aid at the head of the Persian auxiliaries.

Cyrus then first appeared as the commander of an army, and fully justified the expectation of those who had seen his wisdom, discreetness, and valor, on former occasions. He displayed all the activity, the humanity, the address, the fortitude, and the personal authority of a great commander. A general battle was fought, in which the king of Babylon was slain, the Assyrian army totally defeated, their allies dispersed, and their affairs rendered desperate. But as the victory was wholly owing to the conduct of Cyrus, the king of Media was filled with chagrin, envy, and discontent. He soon after returned home, and left Cyrus to prosecute the war at his own discretion.

The Assyrians were unable to collect another army sufficient to cope with Cyrus. He therefore penetrated into Chaldea, took every fortress that lay in his way, ravaged the country, and marched to the gates of Babylon. But the stupendous height and impenetrable thickness of the walls, the lofty towers, and gates of solid brass, and the multitude of men within, seemed to indicate a longer siege and more obstinate defence than Cyrus was prepared to undertake. Before that city could be taken, he had once more to try his fortune in the open field.

He therefore returned with his victorious army to Media, to his uncle Cyaxares; and from thence revisited his father Cambyses, in his native country, Persia, after an absence of about seven years.

It was now pretty clearly foreseen, that Cyrus was rising to the empire of Asia. His great qualities as a general, the sublimity and grandeur of his designs, the celerity of his movements, the martial order of his camps, and the tremendous impetuosity of his battles, in addition to the lustre of his character in private life, presaged his future greatness, and seemed to set him foremost in the first rank of men then living; and, as we shall see hereafter, entitled him to the highest character of all the monarchs of Asia.

On his approach towards the borders of Media, as just related, his uncle Cyaxares met him with coolness. And well might he have been alarmed for the safety of his kingdom and the security of his crown, had Cyrus been of that dark, perfidious character, which many great conquerors have too clearly shown to the world. But Cyrus had the address to dispel his fears, quiet his jealousies, and conciliate his affections; so that the just apprehensions of mankind of a rupture between the Medes and Persians were removed; Cyrus, doubtless, well understanding how important the strict union of those two warlike powers was to the accomplishment of his designs, and also foreseeing how likely it was that he should one day reign over both.

The rapid growth of the Persian arms, under Cyrus, had now excited general attention from Egypt to India. A league was formed among the principalities of Asia, at the head of which was Belshazzar, king of Babylon, and Cresus, king of Lydia.

But, before we proceed, it is necessary to draw the reader's attention, for a moment, aside from the line we are tracing. The Lydians were an ancient people of Lesser

Asia, situated between Ionia on the west, and the greater Phrygia on the east. They derived their name from Lydus, an ancient king of that country. His family, according to ancient authors, was supplanted by the descendants of Hercules, who reigned over the Lydians several centuries. After various revolutions, we find Cresus on the throne of Lydia, the prince just mentioned. He was the friend and ally of the king of Babylon. His capital was Sardis, where afterwards was situated one of the seven churches of Asia.

Cresus was immensely rich, and the Lydians, though a very voluptuous, were yet a warlike nation. This prince, notwithstanding the splendor and opulence of his court, and the luxurious magnificence of his kingdom, was a consummate general, as well as a proficient in the Grecian philosophy. He was perpetually engaged in wars, and made conquests and considerable additions to his dominions. It may also be proper to observe, that the Lydians had, on former occasions, engaged in wars against the Medes, and were their natural enemies, as they were the friends and allies of the Assyrians.

The king of Babylon, whom no emergency of government, or national exigence, could now draw from his debaucheries, had placed Cresus as the acting head of the league, to contend with Cyrus; but, in the mean time, had furnished him with vast sums of money; had drawn a great army, even from Egypt; had collected what forces he could from all Western Asia, then very populous; and, in a word, had assembled an army perhaps second to none in those times, but the army of Xerxes the Great, afterwards drawn from the same populous regions. It consisted of 420,000 men. This army was assembled at Thymbra, a place not far distant from Sardis, the capital of Lydia.

Cyrus lost no time in collecting what forces he could. His army fell short of 200,000; but his chief dependence was on 70,000 Persians, whom, with his own hand, he had trained to the art of war, and into whom he had infused his own invincible spirit. Contrary to all expectation, Cyrus put his army immediately into motion, and marched in quest of his enemies. Their distance could not be less than a thousand miles. It was probably more, and that through countries inhabited by hostile nations. No difficulty could intimidate Cyrus; no labor nor danger could abate the ardor of his troops. By long and rapid marches, he soon came up

to the place of rendezvous, from which Cresus had not moved, but lay in perfect security.

Celerity is the first and grandest of all military maxims. It was this which gave victory and fame to Cyrus, Alexander, Hannibal, Cesar, and Napoleon. Though celerity indeed is not the only thing necessary, yet, other things being as they should be, it renders invasion irresistible, and victory certain.

The Assyrians were astonished at the intrepidity of Cyrus, especially considering the inferiority of his army, and distance from his own dominions. But still they placed confidence in their own resources—their superior numbers, and the military skill of their commanders.

A spacious plain was chosen, on which the army of Cresus displayed a line of battle five miles in length. Their plan was to flank the Persians, and surround them, knowing their own numbers to be much superior. Cyrus, aware of this, had determined that his army should act in three directions; and so sure of victory was he, that he ordered the centre of his army not to move, nor strike a blow, till he had routed the wings of the enemy. When the signal for battle was given, the Persian army stood firm and profoundly silent, in a line much shorter and deeper than the enemy, till the wings of the latter had wheeled round, and formed three sides of an encompassing square. At that instant Cyrus wheeled the wings of his army, and fell with an irresistible shock upon the wings of the enemy; they both gave way, and fell into confusion. That was the signal for the centre, where commenced a battle, long, fierce, and bloody. A hundred and twenty thousand Egyptians, ranged in battalions thirty deep, in close order, and covered from head to foot with bucklers and cuirasses, formed the centre of the allied army. The horse, on which Cyrus rode, was killed; and he fell among forests of spears, and showers of javelins. How often the fate of battle, and even of whole nations, depends on the courage and strength of a general. Nothing could bear him down. He defended himself, sword in hand, till he was rescued by his guards and remounted. This column of Egyptians stood their ground, and fought with amazing bravery, till the field was cleared of all other enemies. Cyrus then offered them honorable terms of capitulation, which they accepted, and laid down their arms.

Never was victory more complete, or battle more decisive. It decided at once the fate of the Lydians, and all

the nations of the Lesser Asia. As Cresus had wantonly drawn the Assyrian war into his own kingdom, he now tasted the fruits of his temerity. But, determined to protract the dispute as much as possible, he collected another army, and encountered Cyrus again, with similar success. Finding all was lost, he retired into Sardis, and prepared to defend that capital against the conqueror, who now commenced a regular siege. The city was soon reduced, and Cresus was condemned to die; but was reprieved and restored to favor, and, it is said, reinstated in his dominions, as a tributary prince. Some writers relate, that Solon, the celebrated Grecian philosopher, had, in the prosperous days of Cresus, visited that prince; and that Cresus, after showing him the splendor of his capital and resources of his kingdom, demanded of the philosopher, whether he did not think him a happy man? Solon answered him in the style of a stoic, and concluded by telling him, that he could not tell whether he was happy, till he had heard of his death. Cresus, in a rage at the freedom and boldness of Solon, called him a fool, and ordered him out of his sight.

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Cyrus, in the ancient barbarous manner, when Cresus had become his prisoner, ordered him to be burned to death. He was accordingly bound on the pile, which was set on fire. While the flames were approaching the unhappy Cresus, he suddenly recollected the words of Solon, and being now forcibly struck with their justice, he cried out, O Solon! Solon! The thing was told to Cyrus, who immediately demanded an explanation. Whereupon, Cresus related to him the circumstances of his interview with Solon, and concluded by saying, that "He will now hear of my death, and will indeed pronounce me an unhappy man."

Cyrus, powerfully affected with the fickleness of fortune, and the changes to which men are liable, ordered the royal captive unbound, and restored him to his favor. This story, however, is said by some writers to be fabulous.

The voluntary submission of many states, by their ambassadors, followed the conquest of Lydia; and Cyrus had little further use for arms in that country.

CHAPTER VI

THE PERSIAN EMPIRE, FROM THE REDUCTION OF ASIA MINOR,
BY CYRUS, TILL ITS SUBVERSION BY ALEXANDER.

FROM the conquest of Asia Minor, Cyrus directed his march toward Syria and Arabia; and in a few years saw all Western Asia subjected to his arms, Babylon alone excepted. This had, from the first, fired his ambition, and had been the ultimate end of all his schemes and enterprises. With an army adequate to the undertaking, he now advanced towards the immense capital. He was met by the king of Babylon, with a numerous army, whom he defeated with great slaughter. The Babylonian monarch fled into the city, shut after him the massy gates, and prepared for a long and resolute defence. This siege commenced about nine years after the capture of Sardis.

Cyrus immediately drew his army before the city, and commenced a series of operations, in which the whole vigor and extent of his genius were aided by the most efficient principles of the art of war, known in his day. But he had difficulties to encounter, which would have discouraged any one but himself. The Babylonians mocked and derided him from their lofty battlements; and seemed secure in a fortress, too strong to be reduced by the art of man.

The height, thickness, and solidity of the walls of Babylon, rendered them impregnable to every attempt. On the top, they were so broad, that several chariots might run abreast: and at short distances, there were towers much higher than the walls, continually filled with armed men. The gates were solid pieces of brass, of such strength and weight, as to defy all possible engines of war. The walls and towers were guarded by a numerous army; and it was thought, with what provisions there were in the city, and what might be raised within it in the gardens, that the inhabitants might sustain a siege of twenty years. There is reason to doubt, whether Cyrus could have taken Babylon otherwise than by stratagem. For, after having spent nearly two years, during which time he tried every mode of attack he could devise, he saw no prospect of success, nor any reason to expect but that a blockade of many years must be his only resort; and even that resort extremely dubious in its issue.

But it is a truth, that whatever man can build, man can destroy; and it is a truth far more melancholy, that with whatever expense, pleasure, and ambition, any thing is built by one man, the time may come, when with equal expense, pleasure, and ambition, it will be demolished by another.

His comprehensive genius, however, at length projected a plan, by which he gained the city. At some distance above the city, had been dug an immense pit, of size sufficient to receive the water of the river for a considerable time. It is said to have been many miles in extent. With this lake the river communicated by canals, which were closed along the river by dikes of amazing strength. By breaking down these, the river would forsake its course, and flow into the lake. On the night of a public festival, Cyrus caused the dikes to be broken down. The river immediately turned out of its channel, which became so dry, that the Persian army marched down into it, with little difficulty, into the city; and were met by another division of the army, who had marched up the channel from the opposite side of the city; and, although there was a high wall on each side of the river, yet, on that night, the gates leading to the river were generally left open. In the midst of revelling and drunkenness, the inhabitants were surprised; and the king, Belshazzar, hearing the uproar abroad, had only time to advance to the gate of his palace, where, fighting sword in hand, he was slain. See Dan. vi.

The city and province of Babylon, without further resistance, submitted to the conqueror. Thus ended the Chaldean or Lower Assyrian empire. This event happened about fifty years after the destruction of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar—209 years from the beginning of the reign of Nabonassar, or Belesis—more than 1600 years from its foundation by Nimrod, or Belus; and in the year before the Christian era, 538.

Babylon had now received an irreparable blow. This diversion of the river continued to overflow the finest part of the adjacent country, and at length turned it into an extensive marsh, as loathsome and unhealthy as it was useless. The current of the river through the city was obstructed, and the water shallow. From this period, Babylon experienced a rapid decay, till it was taken by Alexander the Great, about two hundred years after. Alexander, with a view to make it the seat of his empire, had determined to restore it to its ancient splendor; but, dying

suddenly, the work ceased. His successors abandoned that proud capital for ever, and fixed the seat of their government at Selucia; or, as it was called by some, New Babylon. The steps of its decline can scarcely be traced to a much later period. In the Augustan age, it was nearly desolate.

About two years after the reduction of Babylon, Cyrus, by the death of his father and uncle, succeeded to the sovereignty of Media and Persia. His empire now extended from the Caspian Sea to the Indian Ocean, and from India to Ethiopia.

To relate the particulars of the reign of Cyrus, would conduce little to the general design of this work; and it would be still less conducive, and less interesting to go into many particulars concerning his successors. The fall of the Babylonian, and the rise of the Persian empire, present to the reader the first important revolution in the annals of history, whose consequences were general and permanent.

Cyrus died at the age of 70 years. If we estimate his reign from his assuming the command of the Persian and Median armies, it was thirty years; if from the conquest of Babylon, it was nine years; and if from the death of his uncle, Cyaxares, seven years. He is represented as a prince of great abilities and great wisdom; in his council and cabinet, as distinguished for profound policy, as for bravery and good fortune in the field. He seems to have united the happiness of his subjects with his own glory; thereby securing the prosperity of his kingdom on its surest basis.

Cyrus was an instrument of Providence in accomplishing the divine designs towards the Jews, as we shall hereafter notice, in speaking of their history; and he had the distinguished honor of being foretold, even by name, as the restorer of that chosen people.*

The Persians, in every age, have been a brave, † polite, and generous people. Not even the influence of bad government, the gloomy reign of superstition, or the relaxing indolence of a mild climate, could ever debase them to a level with their neighbors. But the meridian of their glory was in the reign of Cyrus.

* Isaiah xlv. 1.

† This remark must be taken with some limitation.—*Ed.*

The important revolution effected by Cyrus, and the splendor of his reign, are rendered famous in sacred history, by the restoration of the Jews, and the rebuilding of the city and temple of Jerusalem. They had been subdued and carried into captivity by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, where they had now remained for 70 years. On the accession of Cyrus to the empire of Asia, he issued a decree for their restoration; which, with other privileges, allowed them to return to Judea, to rebuild their cities, and to restore their worship. This decree was issued 468 years from the dedication of the temple by Solomon; 955 years from the departure of the Israelites out of Egypt; and 536 years before the Christian era.

Cyrus was succeeded in his extensive empire by his son, Cambyses; who, in a short reign of eight years, did little worthy either of the monarch of Asia, or of the great character and actions of his father. He invaded Egypt with some success; was guilty of many cruelties; and murdered Smerdis, his only brother, the son of the great Cyrus. He was recalled from his Egyptian expedition, to suppress a rebellion raised by Smerdis, the Magian, who had usurped his throne in his absence. But, on his return, as he was mounting his horse, his sword fell out of its scabbard, and gave him a wound in the thigh, of which he died. The Egyptians remark, that it was a judgment of Heaven upon him, because he had wounded their god Apis, in the same place. He had some military talents, but was remarkable only for rashness, pride, cruelty, and injustice.

Smerdis, the usurper, being soon destroyed, was succeeded by Darius Hystaspes. After him the order of succession was as follows, viz. Xerxes the Great, Artaxerxes, Xerxes II., Darius Nothus, Artaxerxes Mnemon, Ochus, Arses, Darius Codomanus. From the accession of Cyrus till the conquest of Persia by Alexander, was 223 years, their average reign being about twenty years.

In looking over this period of Persian history, from Cyrus to Alexander, there is little to engage the attention. The empire was generally on the decline. The vanity and vices of the kings who reigned from time to time, were no less conspicuous, than their dangerous effects on the empire. The former led them often to engage in wars, particularly with the Greeks. The latter rendered them unable to contend with their enemies. Their most memorable enterprise was that of Xerxes the Great. His invasion of Greece was

rendered famous by the greatness of his army, his dastardly conduct, total overthrow, and shameful retreat to his own dominions. Of this extraordinary expedition, a brief account shall be given.

The growing power and military fame of the Greeks had, before the reign of Xerxes, excited both the jealousy and the fears of the Persian monarchs. Xerxes, therefore, no sooner ascended the throne, than he began to meditate an invasion of Greece; and particularly of the Athenians, for their conduct during the reign of his father. Accordingly, he levied forces from all parts of his dominions, and made extensive preparations, both by sea and land. By means of an alliance with the Carthaginians, he drew auxiliaries even from Spain, Italy, and¹Gaul. The Carthaginians, who, at that time, had acquired an extensive military reputation, furnished him with an army of 300,000 men, under the command of Hamilcar. After the most active preparations throughout his dominions, tributaries, and allies, he, in the sixth year of his reign, put his forces in motion, crossed the Hellespont on a bridge of boats, and encamped his army at the city Doriscus, by the mouth of the river Hebrus; near which place he also drew together his naval armament. Here he made a general review of all his forces; and which, according to many authors, consisted of 2,641,610 men, with upwards of 1200 ships: and to this immense multitude, says Dr. Prideaux, if we add all the slaves, the women, the attendants, &c. the number must exceed 5,000,000, probably the greatest army ever brought into the field.*

With this assemblage of nations, Xerxes advanced to the strait of Thermopylæ; where he was met by Leonidas, king of Sparta, and about 300 Lacedæmonians, and as many Greeks as made up about 4000 men. This handful of men defended the pass for two days, resisting every form of attack. The Greeks, however, growing weary of the unequal contest, at length all deserted Leonidas but his 300, and a few others. They stood their ground, and fought with amazing bravery, till every man was slain; among whom was Leonidas himself. This dear-bought victory cost the Persians 20,000 of their bravest men, and two of the brothers of Xerxes; nor could they be otherwise than astonished at the valor and fortitude of the Greeks.

* This account of Prideaux is on the authority of Herodotus, Plutarch, and others; but Diodorus and Pliny make it less.

To Leonidas the prize of valor has been allowed by all heroes, all ages and nations. Many warriors have fought merely for fame, and have laid down their lives to gratify a mad ambition. Leonidas fought for his country. He did not expect to conquer; his object was to delay the enemy's progress, till his countrymen could assume a posture of defence. This object he gained, though he fell in the conflict.

Passing the straits of Thermopylæ, the Persian army, like the progress of a slow but mighty inundation, advanced toward Athens.* The Athenians, having consulted the Delphian Oracle, were directed to defend themselves by wooden walls. When all were in doubt concerning the meaning of this response, says Cornelius Nepos, Themistocles, the Athenian general, told them, that the intention of the Oracle was, that they should defend themselves by ships. Accordingly, the Athenian and confederate fleet of Greece, amounting to about 300 sail, drew up in the strait of Salamis, where they encountered and totally defeated the fleets of Persia, destroying many ships, and dispersing the rest. This battle has been justly celebrated by all historians. It was gained by the masterly policy of Themistocles, who drew the Persians to action in a disadvantageous place, and then, by a bravery nearly as magnanimous, and more fortunate than that of Leonidas, obtained a complete victory.

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480.

Xerxes now saw clearly what enemies he had to contend with; and, perceiving them entire masters of the sea, he was seized with the most alarming apprehensions for his own safety, although encompassed by millions. Leaving an army of 300,000 men with Mardonius, his general, to prosecute the war, he hastened back to the Hellespont, lest his bridge of boats should be destroyed, and his retreat to his own dominions for ever cut off. On his arrival, as he feared, he found his bridge to have been broken by storms. Wherefore, in the utmost consternation for his safety among enemies so brave and intrepid, and for the preservation of his throne, which the news of his ill fortune would expose to some aspiring rebel, he crossed the same Hellespont, which he had lately covered with his fleets and armies, in a fishing-boat, and returned home, covered with shame and infamy.

* This city the Persians soon after took, plundered, and burnt.—*Ed.*

Still far more complete was the defeat of that part of this great invasion, conducted by Hamilcar, the Carthaginian already mentioned; for, landing an army of 300,000 men in Sicily, he was suddenly attacked by Gelo, king of Sicily, as he was celebrating a public feast, and his whole army was either slain or made prisoners, and his fleet destroyed. Mardonius now only remained, to resist the concentrated forces of Greece, invincible by valor, and now formidable by numbers, although far inferior to the army of the Persians.* The Greeks, commanded by Pausanias and Aristides, pursued him now retiring out of Attica into Bœotia. They came to a general battle near Plataea, in which Mardonius was killed, and his army entirely cut off. It is remarkable, that, on the same day, another battle was fought at sea, in which the Greeks were completely victorious, and the remainder of the Persian fleet destroyed.

Thus terminated the greatest expedition found in the annals of history. It can hardly be doubted, that, had the Greeks carried their arms into Persia, they might, at that time, have subverted the Persian empire.

Xerxes, who deserved the appellation of *great* for little reason, except the greatness of his follies and vices, employed the remainder of his reign in inglorious wars—in superstitions destructive to learning and civility, and in intrigues and atrocities, as disgraceful to his throne as injurious to his subjects.

It will be found a just remark, that, as most nations have risen by industry and virtue, so they have fallen by luxury, indolence, and vice. When the Persians were poor, hardy, industrious, brave, and virtuous, they enabled Cyrus to conquer and to govern Asia. But conquest and dominion rendered them vain and secure; wealth made them luxurious and effeminate; vice made them weak and contemptible. They had no longer a Cyrus to lead them to victory; or, if they had, they were no longer a people capable of rising to empire by toil and discipline. But the Greeks themselves, not far from this period, began to feel the corrupting influence of wealth and power. Long before the conquest of Persia, they had passed the meridian of their power and glory; nor could a hero spring but from the wilds of Macedonia, to subdue the Persian empire.

The conquest of Persia, by Alexander the Great, will be noticed under the review of Grecian history. We shall,

* 140,000.

therefore, close this brief survey, by glancing an eye at the state of the Persian territories, subsequent to Alexander's conquest.

It has been already noticed, that Alexander, king of Macedon, above three centuries before the Christian era, in the reign of Darius Codomanus, subdued Persia, and became master of all Western Asia. At the death of Alexander, his extensive dominions were divided among the chief generals of his army. Babylon, together with Media and Persia, fell to Seleucus.

The Seleucidæ, or kings of Syria, held, for a few years, the empire of Persia. Some of them even marched armies across the river Indus, with a view to maintain and extend their authority. But they could not govern what Alexander could subdue; they could not even stand, where he could advance unmolested. Persia soon began to be governed by independent princes. Though under the name of Parthia, it was substantially the same. A dynasty of kings commenced with Arsaces, about 70 years after the conquest of Persia by Alexander, 256 years before Christ. The Arsacidæ held the seat of their government nearer to Media, than to Persia. They were powerful and warlike—were generally more than a match for the kings of Syria, and even set bounds to the Roman arms. Mithridates,* called the Great, was one of the most warlike monarchs of Asia. He flourished about 120 years before the Christian era; and, what is remarkable of him, he maintained a war with the Romans 40 years, and, according to Cicero's own declaration, among the enemies of Rome, was second to none but Hannibal. He was defeated by Pompey, on the plains of Pharsalia; where it is remarkable, that the fate of Europe and Asia has been decided three times, by three great and memorable battles; by Pompey and Mithridates, Pompey and Cesar, Tamerlane and Bajazet.† Although Pompey triumphed over Mithridates, yet the Parthians survived, and were powerful even in the reign of Augustus. The Parthian kings of the dynasty of Arsaces were still powerful, when the Romans began to decline. While the wretched and effeminate Heliogabalus reigned in Rome, about 223 years after Christ, Artabanus, the thirty-second king of the Arsacidæ, was deposed by Artaxerxes, in whom, it is said,

* This Mithridates was king of Pontus, and not of Parthia.—*Ed.*

† Tamerlane defeated Bajazet near Ancona, in Asia Minor, at a considerable distance from Pharsalia.—*Ed.*

the ancient Persian monarchy was restored. The Persians, properly speaking, then flourished; having, like a phœnix, risen from the ashes of the ancient empire; and the names of Sapor, Hormisdas, and Chosroes, make a figure in history, and were famous in their times, while the Roman empire was in its decline, and after its overthrow by the Goths and Vandals. The dynasty of Artaxerxes flourished about 400 years, under twenty-five kings, until Jesdegirdes, in the year of Christ 632, was deposed and slain by the followers of Mahomet. They held the government of that country till conquered by Tamerlane, the great cham of Tartary, in 1396. Since that time the Persians have had various masters, and some very bad ones, and have undergone numerous revolutions. We have seen little of the Persian history during the middle ages. From all we can learn, they must have fared better than the Roman empire; and, if we except China, no nation has stood its ground, through all ages, better than Persia.

The Persians probably experienced their ultimate point of depression before the Christian era; they certainly were powerful when Rome fell; and, though conquered by Mahomet's followers, and by Tamerlane, they have been able to resist some of the most powerful and warlike nations of modern times, the Turks and Russians.



CHAPTER VII.

ANCIENT GREECE, FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES, TO THE
LEGISLATION OF LYCURGUS.

To unite perspicuity with brevity, in drawing the great line of Grecian history, will be difficult; especially, if we regard separately the states and colonies, the traditional history of each, their high antiquity, and their various alliances, wars, and revolutions. The history of this wonderful people is better known than that of those who went before them, and is surely of much greater importance. To their surprising genius, the world is indebted, in a measure, for the knowledge of the arts and sciences. In architecture, sculpture, poetry, and oratory, and in the arts and sciences necessary to the perfection of those branches,

they stand unrivalled. We may say of them, they invented, improved, and perfected. They so far perfected, that they have never been excelled.

The territories of ancient Greece seem to have possessed every advantage which situation, soil, and climate can give a nation. Comprehending a great part of what is now called Turkey in Europe, they were skirted northwardly by German and Scythian nations; eastwardly lay the Black Sea, the strait of Bosphorus, the Hellespont, and the Archipelago; southwardly their country was washed by the Mediterranean, and west by the Adriatic or Gulf of Venice. A narrow sea separated them eastwardly from the shores of Lesser Asia, where Troy once flourished; which, together with many rich provinces, became Grecian colonies. Their climate, which was anciently somewhat more cool than it is now, was salubrious; their sky, generally serene; their air, pure; and their soil, fruitful. Their lofty mountains and rugged hills, the variety in the face of their country, the abundance and purity of their springs and rivulets, and all in a climate and soil so fine and genial, formed an immense variety of wild and charming prospects, in which sublimity and beauty were united.

No country was ever better calculated to promote and reward industry, to foster genius, to fire imagination, or to rouse the mind to exertion. The proximity of seas, and a variety of excellent harbors, early prompted the Greeks to a spirit of naval enterprise, and enabled them to realize the benefits of extensive commerce, wealth, knowledge, and politeness.

The country of ancient Greece was inhabited more than eighteen centuries before the Christian era; but for a thousand years of that period, its history is not only traditional, but fabulous, and, for the most part, utterly incredible. The Grecian fables and traditions, brought down from the heroic age, far excel every thing else of the kind. Nothing, indeed, can be more absurd, false, and ridiculous, than most of them are; yet the glowing imagination of the Greeks has rendered them an interesting part of Grecian literature to the classical scholar. But, as the relation of them would not consist with the brevity of this work, so neither would it increase its utility. Indeed, as this historical sketch is designed to follow the course of empire, our work would hardly strike into the history of Greece, till near the conquest of Persia by Alexander.

The commonwealth of Athens, so renowned for military achievements, and so illustrious for improvement in the liberal arts and sciences, was founded by Cecrops, about 1450 years before Christ. Near the same time, Cadmus, the Phœnician, introduced alphabetic writing into Greece, and founded Thebes in Bœotia. Danaus also founded Argos; and Pelops, a Phrygian, whose descendants, intermarrying with those of Tyndarus, king of Lacedæmon or Sparta, acquired to that family the ascendancy, for many centuries, in the peninsula of Greece. Cecrops and Danaus were emigrants from Egypt; Cadmus was from Phœnicia, and Pelops from Phrygia; so that the four most ancient and powerful cities of Greece, viz. Athens, Sparta, Thebes, and Argos, were founded and for a long time governed by dynasties of foreign princes. Their names, exploits, and misfortunes, are immortalized by the sublime genius of Homer. Not far from this period, Deucalion reigned in Thessaly. From the name of his son Hellen, a considerable portion of the ancient Greeks were called Hellenes; and from Dorus, Eolus, and Ion, some of his more remote descendants, they were distinguished into Dorians, Eolians, and Ionians.

Before the arrival of Cecrops, Danaus, Cadmus, and other adventurers in Greece, its inhabitants were savage, barbarous and unconnected; living entirely in a state of nature,* without laws, civilization, or any forms of social order. But those enterprising chiefs, coming from more enlightened regions, and bringing with them the rudiments of science, were able, by policy or by arms, to establish their authority among those rude tribes and savage clans. They collected them together, built cities, and founded many useful institutions, tending to ameliorate their barbarous state. But if these adventurers found it difficult to reduce those tribes into a well regulated state of society, under the mild influence of laws, it was still more difficult to defend them from the incursions of the more wild and ferocious tribes bordering upon them. They were fierce and warlike; knew little of agriculture; roved from place to place, and subsisted by rapine and plunder.

Two circumstances in those times greatly quickened the

* If by a *state of nature* is meant a state agreeable to the light of nature, or natural reason, it is by no means a savage state; which reason abhors. If it means a state, in which children receive no education from those around them, there is certainly no such state.—Ed.

progress of the Greeks in various useful arts; the discovery of the use of iron, and the extension of the knowledge of alphabetic writing. The former enabled them to construct instruments of agriculture and commerce; and the latter, to diffuse and improve the general means of knowledge. Yet the advantages arising from alphabetic writing, were far less rapid in those times than one would imagine, since, according to Herodotus, a system of written laws was not promulgated in Greece, till about the sixth century before the Christian era—a circumstance truly surprising, considering the progress of the Greeks in the science of government, at a much earlier period, and the strength and quickness of their inventive powers.

The ancient Greeks have the honor of exhibiting to the world the first example of a political confederation, founded in reason, and matured upon principles, whose strength and excellence gave permanency to the institution, as well as to the several states and governments existing under its influence. The country of Thessaly had been governed by Deucalion; and his descendants, as already noticed, founded the Dorians, Eolians and Ionians. This country lay far north of the Hellenic tribes, and was continually exposed to the incursions of the warlike savages on their borders. To provide more effectual means of defence against these dangerous irruptions, the leaders of several tribes or states entered into a confederacy for mutual defence. Their place of meeting, which was semi-annual, was Thermopylæ, a place rendered ever famous by the unparalleled bravery of Leonidas. The king of Thermopylæ, at that time, was Amphictyon. Hence they were called the Amphictyonic council. This combination, while it did not interfere essentially with the independence of the several states, served as a grand political centre, combining the energies, uniting the policy, and harmonizing the movements of the whole. By means of this, the Greeks were, at length, formed into one grand confederate republic; for, although it originated without the peninsula, by modern geographers called the Morea, its advantages were soon perceived; and the central states of Peloponnesus, the Spartans and Argives, became members of it; and by the middle of the fourteenth century before Christ, most of the states of Greece followed their example.

The members of the Amphictyonic league, for a considerable time, were fully employed in regulating their own

governments, and repelling the invasions of their hostile neighbors. But, at length, the restless and active spirit of a warlike people began to extend its views to conquest, and its desires were expanded with a thirst of glory. About 1260 years before Christ, took place the celebrated expedition of the Argonauts, headed by Jason, a Thessalian chieftain, and by the fathers of the celebrated warriors, who shone in the siege of Troy. But, passing over this, as also over the exploits of Theseus and other warriors of that heroic age, we shall, to gratify the taste of the juvenile reader, be a little more particular in relating some of the leading circumstances of the Trojan war.

Previously to the commencement of this war, the Greeks had made considerable progress in the arts, both of war and peace. Their savage manners were softened; their internal policy was regulated by the maxims of justice. In their manners, customs, and religion, they were similar; and their united counsels gave wisdom, energy, and despatch to their movements. Seven independent states occupied, at this time, the peninsula of Greece, although it was but 200 miles long, and 140 in breadth. These were Messenia, Elis, Arcadia, Corinth, Achaia, Argos, and the powerful kingdom of Sparta. The Grecian territories without the peninsula were more extensive, being 260 miles from east to west, and 150 from north to south; comprehending Thessaly, Attica, Ætolia, and sundry other provinces.

The kingdom of Troy lay on the eastern shores of the Hellespont, the southern coast of the Propontis, comprehending the territories of the Lesser Phrygia. The Trojans were of Grecian extraction. Their empire was founded by Dardanus, about 200 years before this period. Hence, they are called Dardans; and their country Dardania. Erichonius, the son of Dardanus, was succeeded by Tros. Hence, they were called Trojans. The son of Tros was Ilus, from whom Troy was named Ilion. Ilus was succeeded by Laomedon, and he, by his son Priam. Priam, after a long and prosperous reign, was destined to see the ruin of his kingdom, and the extirpation of his race, and to fall by the victorious sword of the Greeks.

It is generally agreed, that a hereditary enmity had subsisted between the Greeks and Trojans. Paris, the son of Priam, the most beautiful man of his time, having been allured by the fame of Helen, the queen of Sparta, went over into Greece, and visited the Spartan court. Helen is

celebrated by the poets, as possessing every personal charm in its highest perfection, and as the most perfect beauty of ancient times. Her susceptible heart was too easily captivated by the artful address and polished manners of the perfidious Paris. She listened to his insinuations, and, lost to a sense of honor and duty, she made her escape with him, and took refuge amidst the towers of Troy. The king of Sparta, stung with the treachery of his beautiful queen, whom he adored, and enraged at the baseness and perfidy of the Trojan prince, to whom he had shown all the rights of hospitality, loudly complained of the injury, and appealed to the justice of his countrymen. His brother Agamemnon, the most powerful prince of Greece, seconded his complaints, and used his influence and authority to rouse the resentment of the whole extensive confederation. He succeeded. The princes and people of Greece, no less wounded in their pride, than stung with a sense of the atrocious villany, determined to extinguish the flames of their resentment in the blood of Priam and his people, who refused to restore the illustrious fugitive.

We shall not detail the particulars of this war. Those for whom this work is designed, will find them at length in their proper place, in the course of reading. It shall suffice to say, that a powerful army was sent to wage war with the Trojans; but the enterprise was found to be attended with unforeseen difficulties. The Trojans were a brave and gallant people, of considerable resources, and very great courage. Hector, the son of Priam, equalled only by Achilles, commanded the Trojans, and often disputed the field of victory, with invincible bravery, and various success; and when, after the death of Hector, the Trojans could no longer keep the field, the city of Troy was defended by lofty towers and impregnable walls.

Homer is the chief and almost the only authority on the Trojan war, which, if it ever existed, would have been lost in oblivion, but for his pen. Among other things in praise of Homer, strength and sublimity of genius must certainly be ranked; but amiableness of character cannot be reckoned, nor yet the fair, impartial openness of the historian. His partiality is often so glaring, as to involve him in gross absurdities. While he seems impatient and loath to allow the Trojans any military merit, and is ever disposed to accuse them of meanness and the basest cowardice, he enrols the Grecian heroes with gods, because they could

conquer them. The honor of the conqueror is commonly measured by the greatness and potency of the enemy he conquers. Homer certainly loses sight of this principle, and especially in the character of Hector, who, in his last encounter with Achilles, is compelled, by the merciless partiality of the poet, to act a more pitiful, cowardly part, than we should have reason to look for in the conduct of the meanest soldier in a modern army. Instead of fighting Achilles, like a man, he is made to turn on his heels, and run in a cowardly manner. The mighty Trojan, at length run down, like a sheep pursued by a wolf, is quietly butchered.

The fortune of Greece prevailed ; not, however, by arms, but by stratagem. The Greeks, worn out by a war of ten years, determined to risk their hopes on one desperate effort, which, if successful, would end the war in victory ; if not, would exterminate all hope of conquest, for the present, if not for ever. They made preparations for returning home, embarked in their ships, and set sail ; but they left near the city a wooden horse of vast size, in which was enclosed a band of their bravest heroes. This image they pretended as an offering to the goddess Minerva, to be placed in the Trojan citadel. To give effect to this stratagem, Sinon is despatched over to the Trojans, with an artful and fictitious story, pretending he had made his escape from the Greeks. The superstition of the times gave them complete success. The whim struck the Trojans favorably. They laid open their walls, and, by various means, dragged the baneful monster, pregnant with destruction, into the city.

That night was spent in festivity through Troy. Every guard was withdrawn ; all threw aside their arms ; and, dissolved in wine, amusement, pleasure, and repose, gave full effect to the hazardous enterprise of the hardy Greeks. The fleet, in the night time, drew back to the shore ; the men landed, and approached the city ; the heroes in the wooden horse sallied forth, killed what few they met, opened the city-gates, and the Greeks entered. The night, which was begun in feasting and carousal, ended in conflagration and blood. The various parts of this daring plan, liable to great uncertainties and embarrassments, were concentrated and made effectual by the signal of a torch shown from a conspicuous tower by Helen herself, the perfidious beauty, who had caused the war.

This story, as to its leading parts, is probably founded in fact: whether it is so or not, it does the highest honor to the genius of the poet, by whom it is *related*, if true, or *invented*, if fabulous.

Never was national vengeance more exemplary, or ruin more complete. The destruction of Troy took place 1184 years before the Christian era. This fall of the Trojan empire was final. Independence and sovereignty never returned to those delightful shores; nor has that country since made any figure in history. It continued to be possessed and colonized by the Greeks, while they flourished, and followed the fortunes and revolutions of the great empires.

If the charms of Helen proved the destruction of Troy, yet the Greeks themselves, though they were able to punish her seducer, had little reason to boast of their conquest, or glory in their revenge. On their return, their fleets were dispersed, and many of their ships wrecked on dangerous coasts. Some of them wandered through long voyages, and settled in foreign parts. Some became pirates, and infested the seas with formidable depredations. A few, and but a few, returned to their homes, where fortunes equally disastrous followed them. Their absence, for a course of years, had quite altered the scene of things; as it had opened the way to conspiracies, usurpations, and exterminating revolutions. Their vacant thrones had been filled by usurpers; and their dominions, left defenceless, had fallen a prey to every rapacious plunderer. The states of Greece, which, at the beginning of the Trojan war, were rising fast to prosperity, power, and happiness, were overwhelmed with calamities, and seemed returning rapidly to savage barbarity.

The institution of the Olympic games, their nature, and important influence on society, together with the character, laws, and institutions of Lycurgus, next meet the eye, in tracing the great line of Grecian history. But these events are too far distant in the region of uncertainty, where real historical light holds a doubtful reign with fable and fiction, to merit an extended place in these sketches; and, were they differently situated, they would lead us into details far too minute and extensive for a work of this nature.

Not to seem, however, utterly to neglect a matter so extensive in its influence, and so lasting in its consequences to Greece, as the legislation of Lycurgus, we shall close this chapter with a general view of the character and institutions of that great man.

We have already seen the deplorable state of Greece after the Trojan war. It will be proper to remark here, that the tumults, revolutions, and calamitous events of those times, no less encouraged the savage enterprises of banditti, robbers, and pirates, than they roused the genius and talents of men of great and virtuous minds. In the midst of these convulsions, the Delphian Oracle had ordered a general armistice, and that certain games should be revived, or more properly formed into a regular and permanent institution. The lively and flexible genius of the Greeks, ambitious, fond of amusement, of competition, of pomp and glory, was animated with the proposal. All thoughts of hostility were immediately laid aside in the general preparation for this splendid festival, which was to last five days, and to be begun and ended in the worship of Olympian Jove. The most important of the Olympic games were, wrestling, boxing, pancratium, coit, foot race, horse race, and chariot race. Of these, the pancratium, which united boxing and wrestling, was the most dangerous and terrible, and the chariot race by far the most honorable of all. Iphitus, prince of Elis, seconded by the countenance and advice of Lycurgus, the Spartan law-giver, was the second founder of this noble institution. A large and beautiful plain near Olympia, in the Peloponnesus, was chosen for the purpose. Here a gymnasium was erected; and all the plain was adorned with gardens, porticoes, columns, and arches, to render the scene as delightful and grand as possible. In a word, these games were frequented by an assemblage of nations; and to be a conqueror here inflamed the ambition of mankind more than the honors of war or government.

Lycurgus, moved by the miseries of his countrymen, and induced to hope success from his knowledge of their genius and character, formed the grand design of reducing them to order, under a new form of government, and a new code of laws; the objects of which seem to have been, to promote civil liberty and justice, public and personal safety, and military glory.

After regulating the various powers of government in reference to those important objects, he proceeded to introduce an agrarian law, causing an equal division of lands among the people. He abolished the currency of gold and silver, and allowed no money to be used but iron. He prohibited every article of luxury, greatly improved the Spar-

tan soldiery and mode of fighting, and raised the Spartan commonwealth to the highest eminence of military fame. But the spirit of his laws, and maxims of his government, resembled more the severity of military discipline, than the mild and gentle wisdom of civil policy; and, allowing them their utmost merit, they tended rather to convert a being of tender sensibilities and fine and noble affections into a cold, unlovely machine of reason, apathy, and stern justice. But the Greeks, in those times, would have rejected a plan, divested of all the errors to be found in that of Lycurgus. It is impossible to civilize a nation at once; and, indeed, the laws of Lycurgus, considering the time when they were formed, and the effects they produced on society, can be regarded in no other light, than as an astonishing display of wisdom, energy, and virtue.

CHAPTER VIII.

ANCIENT GREECE, FROM THE LEGISLATION OF LYCURGUS,
TILL THE ISSUE OF THE PERSIAN INVASION.

WHOEVER surveys the Grecian history will immediately perceive the inequality of the states, of which their grand confederacy was composed. Some of them were large and powerful; others were small, and perpetually exposed to injustice and insult from their haughty neighbors. The Lacedemonians first, then the Athenians, and at last the Thebans, were at the head of the confederacy; directed their counsels; led their armies; often drew them into wars; indeed, conquered and enslaved some of them; and perpetually aimed at directing the helm in all public concerns.

Ambition is natural to man; nor does it ever appear more evident, or more odious, than in the conduct of the popular leaders of democratic confederacies. They cherish what they disclaim, and are, in all respects, what they would be thought not to be. The artful demagogue has substantial reasons for preferring democracy to monarchy. In the latter, he has no hopes; in the former, experience suggests to him, that the more noisy he is for liberty, the more certainly he shall enjoy all the sweets of power; and he well knows, that the more he flatters his blind

devotees, the more certainly will they suffer their eyes to be closely veiled, and the more implicitly will they obey his mandates.

Among the ancient histories,* none are so important, or contain such useful instruction, as that of Greece. There the ambition, the haughtiness, the injustice of large states, and the inconveniences, depressions, and final subjugation of small ones, afford a solemn warning to our own free and happy country. In the present chapter, we shall take a brief survey of the Grecian history, from the times of Lycurgus, till the defeat of the Persians at the battle of Plataea, and of the issue of the Persian invasion.

Neither the benign influence of the Olympic games, of the laws of Lycurgus, nor the Amphictyonic council, could preserve them from the rage of civil war. The power and ambition of the Lacedemonians, soon drew on them the jealousy of their sister states. A quarrel breaking out

B. C. between them and the Messenians, a rich and popu-
743. lous province, lying on the south-western shores of the Peloponnesus, a long and desolating war ensued. Both parties were exasperated by a series of injuries; and it became at length, on both sides, a war of passion, as well as of interest, and of extermination, as well as of conquest. The Lacedemonians fought for interest, revenge, and glory; the Messenians, over and above all these, had still more powerful motives; they fought for independence, life, and fortune.

Though fortune seemed early to incline to the Spartan cause, as they were evidently an overmatch for their adversaries, yet no advantage was gained, but by the greatest efforts, nor maintained, but by the utmost vigilance. The ground was always disputed with the fiercest conflict; and every victory was dearly bought. At length, however, overpowered by the steady vigor and discipline of the Spartan armies, the Messenians were driven from the field, and besieged in their capital, Ithome, which, after a brave resistance, was forced by famine to surrender.

The wretched Messenians, who escaped the sword, went into voluntary exile, or became slaves; and their valuable territories were quietly possessed by their haughty conquerors. The Lacedemonians, having now glutted their

* The author would doubtless be understood to mean uninspired histories.—*Ed.*

vengeance, and enriched their treasures by the spoils of a sister state, enjoyed repose for thirty years.

How difficult it is to conquer a nation of freemen; to repress the energies, and crush the spirit of a people determined to be free! After groaning in servitude, and feeling the iron grasp of oppression thirty years, the Messenians revolted, shook off the yoke, and were able to maintain a war still more formidable, and by far more doubtful and threatening on the side of Sparta. They had previously drawn into their alliance the Argives and Arcadians, who promised them the most effectual aid they could give.

They were commanded by Aristomenes, a general whose wisdom and temperance could only be equalled by his intrepid bravery. But we cannot descend to particulars. The dispute was long and bloody, seeming often to threaten the existence of the Spartan commonwealth; but fortune at last declared a second time against the unhappy Messenians. The steady discipline, and invincible courage, and great resources of Lacedemon prevailed; and the Messenians, borne down by inevitable destiny, forsook the field, dispersed, abandoned their ancient abodes, and sought refuge in foreign countries, where a brave and enterprising spirit obtained for many of them an honorable settlement. Their brave and generous leader, Aristomenes, after a course of adventures, ended his life at Sardis. "Other generals," says Dr. Gillies, "have defended their country with better success, but none with greater glory; other characters are more fully delineated in ancient history, but none are more deserving of immortal fame." The conquest of Messenia, by the Spartans, took place about 670 years before the Christian era.

From this period to the defeat of Cressus, king of Lydia, by Cyrus, as related in a former chapter, comprehending about 120 years, a series of events arose, of high importance to the Greeks; and in which vast accessions of light are thrown over the histories of Europe and Asia. During this period the Assyrian monarchy became extinct; the Persian arose to the empire of Asia; and the Jewish monarchy, having been overthrown, had experienced a depression and captivity of seventy years.

The forms of government in Greece had, some time previously to this, been changed; and their monarchies, or rather tyrannies, had given place to democratic republics. The human mind, seemingly slow in the progress of

discovery, yet rapid in the improvement of discoveries, when made, or of hints leading to them, seemed, first among the Greeks, and not far from this period, to acquire just views of its own natural and inherent rights. As men are nearly of equal size and strength of body; as there is a general similarity in their mental endowments; as they are actuated by like desires and aversions, pains and pleasures; so they are naturally entitled to equal rights, privileges, and enjoyments.

The consideration, that the monarch's power exists only by the consent of his subjects, induced the Greeks, when they saw that power abused, to withdraw from it their support. Pursuing the same course of thinking, they were able, at last, to project various forms of government, resembling each other as to the origin, the distribution, and the end of supreme power. As they saw clearly, that all power, in its first principle, was in the people, and that it should only be exercised for the good of the community, they contrived to distribute it among various persons, who should act by delegation, as servants of the public, and who should be responsible to the public for their conduct. This may be called a government of checks.

The wars, carried on during this period, by the states of Greece, can by no means have a place in this compend; for, although the ambitious, restless, and enterprising Greeks were continually agitated by feuds and quarrels, arising from their schemes of aggrandizement, both in the grand council of Amphictyons, and in the several states, yet they were engaged in no wars of considerable moment. The *sacred war* (so called) became interesting and important, as it gave rise to the establishment of the famous Pythian games.

The commonwealth of Crissa, a small state, lay near the famous temple and oracle of Delphi. Although that oracle was highly venerated by all Greece, and many other nations, yet the Crisseans, allured by the immense treasures deposited there, as offerings to the god of wisdom, fell upon, took, and plundered that sacred place. A thrill of horror spread through all Greece, together with the strongest emotions of anger, grief, indignation, and revenge. The promiscuous blood of age and innocence, and the violation of humanity, honor, and modesty, were forgotten in the enormous and dreadful guilt of so great a sacrilege.

To the Amphictyonic council it belonged to prescribe what measures should be taken to punish this unparalleled outrage. Yet such were the dissensions, the political interests, and, more probably, the corrupting power of gold, that that venerable body were at much difficulty, before they could resolve on proper measures.

At length, however, they were roused by the eloquence and authority of Solon, one of the Athenian representatives, to punish this crime against religion and mankind. But indecision in their councils rendered their proceedings slow; nor was it till after considerable time was spent, that the Crisseans were besieged in their capital, and ultimately destroyed, their cities demolished, and their soil condemned to perpetual sterility.

In gratitude to the gods for the fortunate issue of the Crissean or sacred war, the council of Amphictyons instituted the Pythian games, which were celebrated with a pomp and splendor little inferior to the Olympic. The termination of this war, and the institution of those celebrated games, took place about 590 years before Christ, in the second year of the forty-seventh Olympiad, and about three years before the destruction of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar.

We are now drawing near to that period, in which Greece enjoyed the meridian of her glory. The wisdom of her counsels formed a powerful confederacy, equal in strength to the greatest empires; yet, being divided into small, independent governments, the lawless ambition of individuals found less room for action, while personal virtue and enterprise were more secure of a due reward. Greece, having passed through a long and dubious infancy, began now to feel the vigorous bloom of youth, to display a determined character, and to assume that commanding attitude, which never fails to excite confidence, veneration and respect.

We have already noticed the soil, climate, and general features of that country, which was to cherish the first of the ancient nations. No subject is more wrapt in darkness, than the origin of the ancient languages; yet it will scarcely be allowed to be conjecture, when we assert, that the Greek language, from its earliest stages, seems to have been the most perfect which nature ever formed, or divine wisdom ever inspired. Its copiousness and strength were no less adapted to the boldest eloquence, than its variegated and harmonious tones to every species of poetry. In

no language was the grave and dignified style of history and moral sentiment, the native spirit and life of drama, or the wit and pungency of satire, ever better supported.

All the natural advantages of the Greeks seem to have been calculated to expand the mind, to strengthen all its faculties, and especially to elevate and imbolden the imagination. The country was well formed to yield an easy subsistence to its inhabitants; their government to cherish genius, and their language was that of poetry and oratory.

Soon after the institution of the Pythian games, the genius of Greece began to display its power, and shoot forth all its beauties. The works of the immortal Homer had been read and admired; indeed, they had marked their path with light; enkindling at once the hero, the lover, the philosopher, and the legislator, wherever they came. But now appeared, in succession, Archilochus, Terpander, Sappho, Simonides, Alcæus, Stersichorus, Anacreon, and Pindar; and many others, whose names and eulogy might fill a volume. Their variegated strains unfolded every form of genius, wandered through every field of fancy, extracted sweetness from every blossom of nature, and adapted their harmonious numbers to every tone of melody, from the thunders of the warlike muse to the melting accents of the lyre.

Astonishing were the effects produced by the combined influence of so many happy causes. The arts and sciences, and whatever might be expected to arise from the best intellectual culture, now began to flourish in manly maturity. Perhaps, what we ascribe to superior strength of mind in the ancients, was rather the effect of their amazing industry, and the energy and ardor with which they pursued the objects of knowledge. The moderns, compared with them in this respect, have cause to blush at their own indolence. The Greeks, however, invented, improved, and perfected; and that especially in those walks of science, where strength and sublimity of mind are most needful. As a proof of this, we need only mention the names of Homer, Demosthenes, Alexander, Solon, Pythagoras, Miltiades, Praxiteles, and Phidias. We mention them not in the order of time.

In a former chapter we have given a sketch of the Lydian monarchy, founded by Candaules, and ended in the conquest of Cressus, by Cyrus, king of Persia. Although the Lydians were a nation given to dissipation and the most voluptuous pleasures, yet they were, at this period, brave, enterprising

and warlike; and now, commanded by Cresus, a prince highly renowned for military and civil accomplishments. The Greeks of Asia, if not those in Europe also, must soon have experienced inconvenience from the growing power of Cresus, whose conquests, power, and splendor, far eclipsed those of his predecessors. But a much more terrible power was preparing, by Providence, to extinguish forever the light of Cresus, and to change the whole face of things in Western Asia. We have already spoken of Cyrus. In this place it shall suffice to say, that his interference forever delivered the Greeks from danger, as to the Lydians, but gave them a neighbor in himself and successors, much more formidable. The states of Greece were duly apprized of this, and were unwilling to make so disadvantageous a change.

While the storm of the Persian invasion was gathering, Cresus had applied to the Greeks, and especially to the Lacedemonians, for aid. Willing that the powers of Asia should check and balance each other, they were determined, with their utmost efforts, to prop his falling throne. But the celerity of Cyrus defeated their intentions; for before their auxiliaries could arrive, the decisive blow was struck, and the kingdom of Cresus at an end. The aspect of things now seemed to promise, that there should soon be collision of powers between the Greeks and Persians; but it is highly probable, that Cyrus was willing to decline an attempt to subjugate that hardy race; and especially, as Greece presented far weaker allurements than the kingdom of Babylon, and the wealthy cities of Asia.

After the conquest of Lydia, while Cyrus was meditating the subjugation of the Asiatic Greeks, he received an embassy from Sparta, with a message eminently characteristic of that bold and intrepid people. The messenger, in a style truly laconic, told Cyrus, that, if he committed hostilities against any of the Grecian cities, the Lacedemonian republic would know how to punish his injustice. It is said that Cyrus, astonished at the insolence of the message, demanded who the Lacedemonians were. This affected ignorance was rather designed to express his contempt, than to gain information. He well knew who they were. When he was informed they were one of the states of the Grecian peninsula, he made a reply to the ambassadors, which contained a severe and just sarcasm upon their national character. He told them "that he should never fear men,

who had a square in the midst of their city, in which they met together to practise mutual falsehood and deception; and that, if he continued to enjoy the blessing of health, he hoped to afford them more domestic reasons of complaint, than his military preparations against the Greeks of Asia.”

The Greeks of Asia soon fell a prey to Harpagus, whom Cyrus left behind him, with a powerful army, to complete the conquest of these countries, while he himself, now burning with ambition, directed his march towards Babylon.

For a period of nearly forty years, ensuing the taking of Sardis, the Lydian capital, nothing will be noticed in the history of Greece. And here it will be proper to remark, that the commonwealth of Sparta, which, since the close of the Messenian war, had held the first place among the Grecian states, was now evidently falling behind that of Athens, and that the latter was fast rising in wealth, learning, power and influence, to the supremacy of Greece, an ascendancy owing to her commercial enterprise.

The short and splendid reign of Cyrus, after the reduction of Babylon, seems to have been fully employed in settling the affairs of his extensive dominions. Nor is it probable, that, in an empire of such extent, he had leisure, or much inclination, to direct his attention to so inconsiderable an object as the Peloponnesus. The Greeks, therefore, remained in a measure occupied in their own domestic concerns, till, in the reign of Darius Hystaspes, an opportunity presented for the Asiatic colonies to throw off the Persian yoke. That monarch had determined on an invasion of the Scythians, a warlike race of people, whose first irruption into the countries of Asia took place in the reign of Cyaxares the First, as already noticed. Darius, meditating revenge for ancient, as well as recent injuries, at the head of 700,000 men, traversed Asia Minor, crossed the Bosphorus of Thrace, and was presently seen on the banks of the Danube. Over that broad river he laid a bridge of boats, and, crossing it, plunged with his immense army into the wilds of Europe. Having spent several months in fatiguing marches, vain pursuits, incessant labors, and continual alarms, he found his army greatly impaired, their numbers diminished, and their spirits wasted. On his return, being entangled by mountains, forests, rivers and morasses, flying parties continually hung upon his rear, and formidable hordes often throwing themselves in his way, threatened to cut off his retreat. The news of his disasters reached the

Danube, where he had posted strong guards, to defend the bridge he had thrown across that river. Several of the commanders stationed there advised to break up the bridge, and thereby prevent his return, that his ruin might be completed. Among the foremost of those advising that measure, was Miltiades, the Athenian, who considered this as an opportunity, which ought not to be lost, of restoring the Asiatic Greeks to their liberty. But, the plan failing of success, Miltiades was compelled to seek safety in Athens, to escape the resentment of the Persian monarch. This celebrated advice of Miltiades, of which a particular account is given by Cornelius Nepos, was defeated by the counsel and authority of Histæus, the Milesian, who thereby saved the life of Darius, and brought himself into great favor with that prince. Darius, on his return to his own dominions, formed the design of punishing, not Miltiades alone, but the Athenian commonwealth.

The conquest of the states of Greece seems to have been a favorite object with the Persians from the time of Cyrus. Their growing power, their independent spirit, and especially the lofty and commanding attitude they assumed and preserved, was wounding to the pride, and even alarming to the fears, of the monarchs of Asia. But the short reign of Cyrus was employed in matters judged to be of greater moment. The arms of his son Cambyses were carried in a different direction; nor was it till the reign of Hystaspes, that an invasion was carried into effect. Darius returned from his invasion of Scythia, covered with shame, and exasperated with disappointment. But, finding himself re-seated on his throne, he considered it as a matter equally dictated by revenge, interest, and honor, that he should now chastise the Greeks, who, during his unfortunate expedition to Scythia, had shown but too clearly their pleasure in his disgrace, and their readiness to co-operate in a plan for his destruction.

Inflamed with resentment, the Persian king, therefore, resolved to make the Athenian republic, now regarded as the head of Greece, the first object of his vengeance. He, therefore, after extensive preparations, considerable delays, and some discouraging disasters, fitted out a very great armament, the command of which he gave to Datis and Artaphernes, men eminently skilled in military command. This mighty army contained the flower of his empire, and was conveyed in a fleet sufficient to shade the Grecian seas.

The majestic armament, after hovering awhile among the islands of the Archipelago, at length, with solemn grandeur, slowly approached the shores of Attica. The flower of the Persian army landed on the plain of Marathon, about ten miles from Athens, where they pitched their camp. In this interesting moment, destined to confirm the glory of Greece, and to elevate the Athenians to immortal renown, that brave but small republic stood alone; the other states refusing their aid, from republican jealousy, superstition, and perhaps the paralyzing shock of dubious expectation. Whatever it might have been, 10,000 Athenians, and a few men from Plataea, appeared in the field, to cope, as it is allowed by all historians, with ten times their number of chosen warriors.

The Greeks, though few in number, were completely armed, and were generally men of strength, courage, and tried skill in the gymnastic exercises. The celebrated Aristides, who was present in this battle, and who had a right, as general, to share in the command, magnanimously resigned his right to Miltiades, as did the other commanders of Athens. On the morning of the decisive day, Miltiades formed his line of battle with the utmost skill and foresight.

The heroes of Athens (for such every man of them might be called) took the right, and those of Plataea the left wing of the line, which was formed on the side of a hill; down which, when the signal for onset was given, the Grecian army moved with order and rapidity. When they came within the reach of the Persian slings and arrows, they ran and closed with the enemy with the most impetuous shock.

The conflict was severe, but short. Nothing could resist the valor of the Greeks, or equal the celerity of their evolutions. The Persians were dismayed, broken, routed and dispersed. They fled to their ships in the utmost consternation, leaving 6000 of their best troops dead on the field of battle. The loss of the Greeks was inconsiderable.

[Just after the battle of Marathon, an Athenian soldier, whose name was *Eucles*, still covered with blood and wounds, quitted the army, and ran to Athens, to carry his fellow-citizens the news of the victory. His strength just sufficed to reach the city. On his arrival he uttered three words, *Rejoice, we triumph*; and instantly expired.]

The death of Darius soon put a period to further preparations against Greece; nor was the invasion renewed till the expiration of ten years.

From this period, Athens held unrivalled the ascendancy in Greece; but even the cursory reader will not refuse a tear over the relentless fate of the brave and illustrious Miltiades. For, soon after this, failing in an attempt against the Isle of Paros, he was tried for his life, fined an immense sum, and flung into prison, where he expired of the wounds he had received in defending his country. He gave liberty and empire to his country; for which they rewarded him with chains and a dungeon. Nor yet can we pronounce with certainty, concerning the reasons the Athenians had to doubt his integrity, or to suspect him of maintaining a clandestine correspondence with the court of Persia. Many men, whom nature has made brave and virtuous, will at length become intoxicated with power, blinded with self-interest, bewildered with dazzling theories, and liable to the deepest seduction.

The Persians felt so severe a rebuke with sorrow, anger and indignation; and a second invasion was resolved on, as the only expedient to wipe away the disgrace of this signal defeat, which must otherwise remain indelible. The son and successor of Darius Hystaspes, was Xerxes, surnamed the Great. We have already spoken of his famous expedition into Greece, in our review of the history of Persia. We there particularly noticed the victory, obtained over his fleet, by the policy and bravery of Themistocles, in the battle of Salamis; and his precipitate retreat to his own dominions. We also noticed the defeat of the army, which he left under the command of Mardonius, in the great and memorable battle of Plataea, by the combined armies of the Greeks, under the command of Aristides and Pausanias.

At Marathon, a single state of Greece had conquered the united armies of Persia; at Salamis, the Greeks had shown their superiority by sea; and at Plataea, the combined forces of Greece had destroyed the most efficient force, which could be drawn from the Persian empire, commanded by their ablest generals. The dispute, which for ages had subsisted between the Greeks and Persians, was now decided; and it was well for the latter, that the former were satisfied without pushing the demonstration further, by arguments still more unpleasant.

The Persians, doubtless, meditated no more invasions of Greece. The latter was left in the possession of unrivalled glory; and the former were compelled to set bounds to their schemes of ambition.

If the first part of Grecian history conducts the reader through a period of fiction, the part which we are now upon opens to the mind a period of virtue, genius, merit, and lasting fame. They could boast of a Homer, whose amazing genius was able to construct an epic poem, not only the first,* but the noblest ever formed; a poem, from which the mythologist, the legislator, the historian, the prince, the soldier, and even the geographer, could draw appropriate instructions; a poem, whose form has ever since been regarded as an immutable rule and model of perfection; a poem, which has tinged the whole current of poetry in all polite nations, and the lofty flights of whose muse have never been outsoared. They could boast of an Amphictyon, whose wise and comprehensive mind had originated the first political confederacy, to whose benign influence the prosperity and grandeur of Greece may be clearly traced, and to which all free, deliberative, representative, legislative bodies do homage, as their grand parent. They could boast of a Lycurgus, whose powerful, projecting mind could control the licentious savage with laws, which, if not the most amiable and humane, yet displayed an energy almost more than mortal; and which, if they did not produce the most happy, certainly produced the most masculine, determined and brave society of men ever known.

But if the institutions of Lycurgus were deficient in mildness and urbanity, they could boast of a Solon, who united in one system, and condensed into one body, the scattered rays of political wisdom and experience, gleaned up from the wisest nations of his time; who mingled mercy with justice, and the sternest precepts of philosophy with the softer dictates of sensibility and compassion.

In short, as we approach to the final issue of the Persian invasion, we are surprised at a group of great characters, which suddenly crowded the scene. Our minds are struck with the lustre of their virtues and actions. Miltiades, whose talents, as a soldier and commander, availed him

* It is by no means certain that Homer's epic poem was the first that was ever composed.—*Ed.*

instead of a host, first comes forward; then Leonidas and his adventurous companions, whose souls appear like so many bright flames of courage and love of glory; then Themistocles, whose deep penetration enabled him to predict and ward off approaching danger, and as by his foresight, so by his courage and conduct, to be the savior of his country. But their names and due praises would fill a volume. So far are we from being able to do them justice, that we hope only to awaken in the reader a desire to trace them at large in the pages of ancient history.



CHAPTER IX.

ANCIENT GREECE, FROM THE PERSIAN INVASION, TILL THE DEATH OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

IN the preceding view of the history of Greece, the reader will perceive, that little mention is made of any of the states, except Lacedemon and Athens. For this omission, two reasons are to be assigned; first, the brevity of this work requires, that but few things be noticed, as we pass through a field of such extent; and, secondly, the other states, whether in the Peloponnesus, or out, whether in Europe or Asia, were generally animated by the same views and motives, governed by the same politics, and followed by the same fortunes.

Greece had now acquired the summit of her glory and happiness; but still she continued to exhibit unquestionable proofs, that no community can either boast of unsullied virtue, or can enjoy unmingled happiness. Many of those great men, whose talents and virtues raised their country to its present greatness, either by their own vices or the ingratitude and envy of their countrymen, were doomed to experience the most painful reverse of fortune. Disgraced by their country, they descended in poverty, sorrow and infamy, to their graves; leaving it for posterity to do justice to their memory.

It will be remembered, that Pausanias and Aristides commanded the Greeks at the celebrated battle of Platæa, where the Persians received their last defeat under Mardonius. Pausanias afterwards, lost to all true sense of rectitude and honor, became a traitor, and suffered the punish-

ment he deserved. His colleague, Aristides, though once banished upon suspicion, was recalled, and was able fully to demonstrate his innocence. He lived to a great age, enjoying the highest honors of public confidence, and was surnamed *the Just*. But to no commander did the Greeks owe more, than to Themistocles. Historians generally allow that after the defeat of the Persian invasion, under Darius Hystaspes, the Greeks were of opinion, that there would never be another invasion. Themistocles assured them to the contrary. He clearly foresaw, that what advantage had been gained over the Persians would rather rouse their resentment, and stimulate their ambition, than break their spirit. He said, therefore, that the battle of Marathon was but a prelude to a more glorious contest; and, by his counsel and authority, the Athenians were prevailed upon to forsake their city, which they could have defended, and risk their fortune at sea. That was doubtless their salvation, as their naval skill far excelled that of the Persians; and even when their fleets were drawn up in sight of each other, the policy of Themistocles brought on an engagement, contrary to the wish of both fleets, and, by that means, gave the victory to Greece, which did in reality decide the fate of the war.

To the superior genius of Themistocles, therefore, Greece was indebted for her liberties, and her existence as a nation; and to the same the world is indebted for preserving a nation, who were the fathers of literature and government. But his services, however important to his country, or to the world, could not save him. The Spartans regarded him with the most implacable hatred and malice. They implicated him, as being concerned in the treason and treachery of Pausanias, and caused him to be banished.

[*More particular account of Themistocles.*—Themistocles acted a most distinguished part upon the theatre of Greece, in one of the most eventful periods of her history. His qualities were rather dazzling than amiable. They were calculated to excite the admiration, rather than gain the confidence, of his fellow-citizens.

Of his ambition and love of glory, a striking proof is recorded by Plutarch, who relates, that after the battle of Marathon, in which Miltiades gained so splendid a victory, Themistocles was observed to retire from society, and spend many successive nights in pensive solitude. When his friends anxiously inquired into the cause of this depression

of mind, he replied, that "the trophies of Miltiades would not permit him to sleep." Indeed the great object of his life seems to have been, to acquire and maintain a superiority, not only in Athens, but through all Greece. This was the secret spring of all his political measures. If he exerted himself to procure the banishment of the virtuous Aristides, it was not from any conviction, that that decided patriot was dangerous to the commonwealth, but merely from a dread of his inflexible justice, envy at his growing popularity, and a desire to exclude a formidable rival, who stood in the way of his ambition. If he proposed to the Athenians to collect a powerful fleet, it was manifestly intended to prepare, not only for the approaching conflict with Persia, but for a yet more arduous struggle, which his discerning mind foresaw, between his own country and the rival states of Greece, in which Athens would owe her superiority solely to her maritime strength. If he suggested to the Athenians the propriety of quitting their city, of fortifying the Pireus, and of greatly augmenting their fleet—if he continually urged the Athenians to some new enterprise, whether just or unjust—all these measures were obviously the result of selfish and unprincipled ambition, though, in some instances, they were eminently beneficial to his country, and might, at first view, be ascribed to patriotic motives.

But the most conclusive evidence of his willingness to sacrifice every thing to glory, may be drawn from the nefarious design he communicated to Aristides, of burning the ships of the allies, at a moment in which they were engaged in defending the common liberties of Greece—a proposal, at which that upright statesman started back with horror, pronouncing it the most unjust and perfidious of projects. Through his whole administration, indeed, he evinced a total disregard to justice in the means he adopted for the attainment of his wishes. If a system of duplicity and dissimulation, carried on under the disguise of truth and honesty, be essential to state-policy, the world has scarcely ever seen a more finished statesman than Themistocles, who was a perfect master in all these arts.

His artifices were, for a time, successful. He saw the republic of Athens flourish; his own authority was unbounded; not a rival could stand against him; he was the popular idol, whom all Greece consented to worship. His insatiable ambition could scarcely desire more homage and

applause, than was rendered him by the Greeks, who had assembled for the celebration of the Olympic games, after the victory at Salamis. This pinnacle of fame was a dangerous eminence to a character so susceptible of flattery, so fond of admiration, as Themistocles'; an eminence from which he was shortly afterwards suddenly precipitated. The people of Athens grew tired of their idol, and threw it down from the lofty pedestal on which they had placed it. Themistocles, in his turn, became an object of jealous suspicion. He was pronounced dangerous to the commonwealth, and banished for ten years.

Themistocles retired first to Argos; but was soon obliged to withdraw from the territories of Greece, on account of the suspicion generally entertained of his having been implicated in the treason of Pausanias. It sufficiently appeared in the trial, and after the death of that traitor, that Themistocles was informed of the conspiracy, and concealed it; while, in his private letters to Pausanias on the subject, he rejected, with indignation, every proposal to join in the enterprise. The Lacedemonians were, on many accounts, highly incensed against him, and left no means untried to procure a sentence of death against one, whom they had ever considered the secret enemy of Sparta. From the persecution of his enemies, he fled to Admetus, king of Molossus, who had previously entertained the deepest resentment against him; but, now he saw his dread adversary a wretched exile, supplicating his protection, he generously forgot all his former enmity, and made his own palace the asylum of the distinguished outlaw.

Yet, even here Themistocles did not consider himself beyond the grasp of his enemies. He escaped to Persia, and sought the protection of Artaxerxes. When the unfortunate exile was arrived at the palace of that monarch, he waited on the captain of the guard, requesting, as a Grecian stranger, to have permission to speak with the king. The officer informed him of a certain ceremony, without which none were allowed that honor. Themistocles promised to comply; and, falling on his face before the king, declared his name, his country and misfortunes. "I have done," said he, "my ungrateful country services more than once, and am now come to offer my services to you. My life is in your hands. You may now exert your clemency, or display your vengeance. By the former, you will preserve a faithful suppliant. By the latter, you will

destroy the greatest enemy to Greece." The king was struck with admiration at his eloquence and intrepidity. He even gave him three cities for his support, and had him maintained in the utmost splendor.

In this manner, he lived in affluence and contented slavery, until the king thought of sending him, at the head of an army, against Athens. The consciousness, that he should be instrumental in overturning a city, which had been made to flourish by his counsels, gave him inexpressible pain. He found himself, at last, unable to sustain the conflict between his gratitude to the king, and his love to his country; and therefore resolved upon dying, as the only means of escaping from his perplexity. He prepared a solemn sacrifice, to which he invited all his friends, when, after embracing them, and taking a last farewell, he swallowed poison, which soon put an end to his life. He died at Magnesia, aged threescore and five years.]

In a former chapter, it has been said, that the great line of history (i. e. if we follow the course of empire) would scarcely strike into Greece, till the era of Alexander. But this remark must be understood in a sense extremely limited; for at the close of the Persian invasion, and ever afterwards, nothing remained with the Persians but the shadow of empire. For, being compelled to acknowledge the superiority of the Greeks, both by sea and land, they were willing to accept of peace on any terms.

By a most vigorous system of war, arts, agriculture and commerce, the Grecian empire now spread in every direction; and the coast of Asia, from Syria to the Bosphorus of Thrace, owned her sovereignty, including all the adjacent islands. It extended also on the shores of Europe, from Epirus round the peninsula of Greece, and stretching to Macedon, Thrace and the Euxine Sea.

Soon after the close of the Persian war, the Athenians rebuilt their city, which had been destroyed by Xerxes; or rather built it anew, and enclosed it with walls, whose height and solidity rendered them impregnable to any common form of attack. They also built the famous harbor, called the Piræus, which lay about five miles from the citadel of Athens. This harbor was large, and convenient for the whole Grecian navy. Here a new city directly arose, nearly of equal size with Athens. This new city, the harbor, and the intermediate buildings, were soon after, in the administration of Cimon, the son of Miltiades, enclosed

in walls of amazing strength, extending from the old city; so that the enclosing walls of Athens were upwards of eighteen miles in length.

Under the administration of Cimon and Pericles, these and various other public works were completed; so that Athens now began to assume a form and aspect exceedingly magnificent and splendid. If Babylon, Nineveh, or Persepolis, covered a greater extent of ground, if they contained structures of greater dimensions, still their real glory and magnificence bore no comparison to the superb structures, to which Grecian architecture gave birth; and their internal decorations, in comparison with those of Athens and of other Grecian cities, were like the huge caverns and gloomy vaults formed by the hand of nature. Not far from this period, the republic of Elis built the celebrated temple of Olympian Jupiter; a work equalled in no subsequent age. To afford diversity to the young reader, we shall here give a brief description of this famous temple, abridged from Dr. Gillies.

There had long subsisted a contest between the Eleans and Pisans, concerning the right of superintending the celebration of the Olympic games. This quarrel resulted in a war, in which the Pisans were conquered, and all their effects were appropriated to the building of a temple to Jupiter, by whose assistance the Eleans were supposed to be victorious.

This temple was of the Doric order, built of stone resembling the Parian marble, and encircled with a superb colonnade. Its dome was 60 feet in height, 90 broad, and 230 long. It was covered with a rare kind of marble, cut in the form of tiles. At each extreme of the roof stood a golden vase, and in the middle a golden Victory; below which was a shield embossed with Medusa's head, of gold. On the pediment stood Pelops and Oenomaus, ready to begin the Olympic race in the presence of Jupiter. This vault was adorned with the battle of the Centaurs and Lapithæ. The labors of Hercules distinguished the principal entrance.

After passing the brazen gates, you discover Iphitus, who, as we have seen, founded the Olympic games, crowned by his spouse, Echechiria. Thence the way led, through a noble portico, to the majestic creation of Phidias, the Athenian; which formed the grand ornament of the temple, as well as of Greece. The god was sitting on a throne, and

of such colossal stature that his head reached the roof, 60 feet in height. This mighty image was composed of gold and ivory. In his left hand was a burnished sceptre, in his right an image of Victory, and on his head an enamelled crown of laurel. His robes and sandals were variegated with flowers and animals of gold. His throne was of ivory and ebony, inlaid with precious stones. The feet which supported it, and the fillets which joined them, were adorned with innumerable figures, among which were the Theban children torn by sphinxes, and Apollo and Diana shooting the beautiful and once flourishing family of Niobe. Upon the most conspicuous part of the throne were eight statues, representing the gymnastic exercises, and a beautiful figure, resembling young Pantarses, the favorite scholar of Phidias, who, in the contest of the boys, had lately won the Olympic prize. On the four pillars, which between the feet sustained the throne, were delineated the Hesperides, guarding the golden apples; Atlas with mighty effort sustaining the heavens, with Hercules ready to assist him; Salamine with naval ornaments in her hands, and Achilles, supporting the beautiful expiring Penthesilea.

But the ornaments of this temple and statues were indescribable; presenting at once to the eye, a scene of elegance, beauty and majesty, which no words can paint. There were in Greece, and Asia Minor, four other temples, if not equal in all, yet far superior to this, in some respects, (viz.) that of Ceres and Proserpine, at Eleusis in Attica; of Diana, at Ephesus; of Apollo, at Miletus, and of Jupiter, at Athens.

During this period, the Greeks seemed to unite every thing in their character and actions, which was bold, enterprising or great; but we cannot add, every thing, that was just, generous and humane. Many of their greatest men they banished; some on real conviction, but more, it is presumed, on suspicion, from the base motives of jealousy and envy; and the season of happiness and glory for the Greeks scarcely arrived, before it was forever past. They now began to feel the corrupting influence of wealth, power and prosperity. Luxuries, like an overwhelming flood, rolled in from every quarter; and the insolence of prosperity, and pride of empire, struck at the heart of public morals and virtue, and began secretly to undermine that power, which had raised the Greeks to such an exalted height.

The career of those great men, we have just mentioned, was scarcely past, when the administration of Pericles opened scenes more splendid, more flattering to the vanity, and more corrupting to the virtue, of Athens, than any, which had been before his day. Pericles was endowed with every accomplishment necessary to enable him to influence and to govern. The most persuasive and commanding eloquence, added to the greatest personal attractions and intellectual powers, rendered him the most extraordinary man of his time. He was artful, bold and magnificent. He was a friend to every thing great and elegant in the arts and sciences; a professed republican; an accomplished courtier; capable of building cities; of commanding armies; of leading men's understanding by the force of his reasoning, however fallacious, and of inflaming their passions by his oratory. It is said, that he thundered when he spake.

Ambition was his ruling principle. His schemes, which were generally concerted with policy, and executed with success, tended uniformly to sink the states of Greece into one general mass, on which he might raise, adorn and glorify the Athenian empire. In short, his aim was to make Athens the supreme arbiter of Greece, and himself the head of Athens.

The history of Greece, from the battle of Plataea till the Peloponnesian war, is, in a great measure, the history of governments, and of arts and sciences. We shall pass over this, therefore, a period of about 50 years, and proceed to a brief survey of that war; and we shall see its causes early planted, and its effects, gradually forming the theatre for the Macedonian conqueror.

The warlike Medes were inebriated by the wealth and luxuries they found in the first Assyrian empire, which they subdued. The Persians drank the same deadly draught from the conquest of the second. The Greeks were effeminated by the conquest of the Persians; and the Romans, as we shall see in tracing our line, experienced the same, in the conquest of Carthage and Greece. Throughout all ancient history, we see virtue, industry and bravery combined with ambition, raising nations to empire; and we see wealth, luxury and vice, undermining and plunging them down to destruction.

We have already noticed the ascendancy, which the Spartans gained among the states of Greece, in the first

ages of those republics. At first, it was real; at length, only nominal; but after the battles of Marathon, Salamis and Plataea, it existed no longer. The Athenians seem to have been superior to their sister states in genius, enterprise and local situation. The gradual, but powerful operation of these, together with many other advantages, more particular and accidental, rendered them superior to all. But by whatever causes they acquired superiority, one thing is certain,—they used it with far less moderation than the Lacedaemonians had done before them. The menacing tone, and haughty air, they assumed, were but ill calculated to promote their ancient union; and indeed they now seemed only solicitous to extort, by force, from their neighbors, degrading acknowledgments and humiliating concessions.

This haughty and overbearing spirit clearly appeared in the administration of Pericles. His lofty and aspiring genius, his bold and animated eloquence, prevailed on his countrymen to throw off the mask, and assert their right to supremacy. The consequence was, the extinction of all union, general resentment, combinations, conspiracies, and civil and desolating wars. In the general calamities, Athens shared largely. The Peloponnesian war was productive of incalculable evils; evils of which Greece never recovered; equally subversive of morals, liberty and empire; and which prepared the way for its conquest by Philip.

The states of Greece, with equal astonishment and indignation, received ambassadors from Pericles, together with a mandate, that all the states and colonies should, by their deputies, assemble at Athens, to adopt measures for rebuilding ruined temples, and paying due respects to the immortal gods, for their assistance in the Persian war. An order so extraordinary, in so imperative a tone, was received by many with deep disgust, and secret murmurs; by the Spartans, with resentment and derision; and by none with due submission, but those states, whose dependence had already ensured their acquiescence. The tendency of this measure was, to render Athens the source of authority, and the centre of deliberation, action, power and honor.

When Pericles understood how this requisition was received at Lacedaemon, he is said to have exclaimed, with his usual forcible and figurative style, "I behold war advancing, with wide and rapid steps, from the Peloponnesus." In this conflict of power, policy, wealth and ambition, it was perceived, that Athens and Sparta must form

the two rallying points; and both those powers had endeavored, by every artifice of open and secret negotiation, to strengthen their cause by leagues, alliances and auxiliaries.

This memorable war was begun by the Corinthians and Corcyreans, a colony from Corinth, about 439 years before the Christian era.

Corcyra is an island near the entrance of the Adriatic Sea. East of it lies the kingdom of Epirus; and west, the bay of Tarentum. This island has been famous even from the times of Homer, who calls it Phœacia. Its present name is Corfu. From remote antiquity, this island has been celebrated for its wealth, beauty, and, at times, for its naval and military character. The republic of Corinth had early sent a colony to Corcyra, which soon grew into a wealthy and powerful state, and was able to resist the haughty and imperious requisitions of the mother country. Nor shall we find a more convenient place than this, to notice an essential blemish in the moral and political character of the ancient Greeks.

The spirit of emigration and colonizing prevailed more with the Greeks than with any other nation, ancient or modern. It was, indeed, the natural result of their national character, form of government, and local situation. Enlightened, free, independent and enterprising, the defenceless state of many of their more barbarous neighbors invited their aggressions; and the numerous islands of the surrounding seas gave ample room and full scope to the indulgence of their roving and restless propensities. They emigrated, invaded, conquered and colonized. And, before the commencement of the Peloponnesian war, could their powers have been brought to a common focus, by a plan of policy sufficiently strong and combining, they would have formed the most powerful and warlike nation ever known. But, in this respect, they were far behind the Romans. Divided into small independent governments, they were distracted and torn by mutual jealousies; and their caprice, tyranny and vengeance, were often wreaked upon their refractory colonies, towards whom they made it a point to preserve an attitude the most commanding and supercilious. A predominance of this unhappy temper occasioned perpetual broils, and, at last, brought on an eventful struggle, from the deplorable consequences of which Greece never recovered.

After some battles and various success, the Corcyreans, finding themselves in danger of being overcome, applied

to Athens for aid, which was granted. In the mean time, the war is prosecuted with vigor; the Athenians send aid to Corcyra. Corinth is over-matched, and applies to Sparta and the Peloponnesian states; and they, at length, fall in on the part of Corinth. Thus, instead of Corinth and Corcyra, were seen Athens and Lacedemon in the field of action, the states of Greece divided, and the devastations of war spreading over their fairest provinces.

B. C.
431.

The Spartans, if in any degree less warlike than in former times, were certainly more enlightened, more politic, and directed by maturer counsels. Their bravery and fortitude were still terrible to the haughty Athenians; and Pericles himself might have seen reasons for wishing, that he had been satisfied with a more tacit acknowledgment of Athenian greatness; especially, when he now often saw that proud capital tottering on the brink of destruction, exposed to the fortune of a most eventful war, and severely distressed by pestilence.

While the confederate armies were ravaging the country of Attica, even almost to the gates of Athens, a dreadful plague broke out in that city. As its first appearance was at the Piræus, it was generally believed to have been imported from abroad, in the Athenian vessels. This was about the year before Christ, 430.

[*Some particulars of the Peloponnesian War.*—When it was perceived, that the first object of the Spartan league would be, to invade Attica with an overwhelming force, Pericles prevailed upon the Athenians to retire into the city, which had been strongly fortified, and leave their villas and fields exposed to the ravages of the invading army. While they thus stood on the defensive at home, he proposed, that the Athenian fleet, which was mistress of the seas, should make reprisals upon the territories of Sparta and her allies, by committing similar ravages on their coasts, and oblige them ultimately to withdraw their forces from Attica.

A temporary clamor was excited against Pericles, when, from the walls of their city, the Athenians saw their mansions consumed by the flames, and the fruits of their fields reaped by hostile hands—when the melancholy tidings reached them of the total devastation of their late fertile borders. But that statesman, relying on the success of his plan of defence, made no reply either to their menaces or entreaties. The result, he had anticipated, quickly followed. The confederate army under Archidamus, king of

Lacedemon, straitened for supplies, and unequal to the siege of Athens, was recalled, to defend their own coasts from the aggressions of the Athenian fleet. In consequence of the naval superiority of the Athenians, and the inexperience of their adversaries in conducting sieges, the balance of success, during several years of the war, was greatly in favor of the former. But an enemy of a far different description awaited them, whose fearful ravages it was impossible to resist. In the second year of the Peloponnesian war, just at the time in which the whole population of Attica had taken refuge from a second invading army, within the walls of Athens, a plague broke out in that city, than which a more terrible is scarcely recorded in the annals of history. It is related, that it began in Ethiopia; whence it descended into Egypt; thence into Lybia and Persia; and, at last, broke like a flood upon Athens. This pestilence baffled the utmost efforts of art. The most robust constitutions were unable to withstand its attacks. No skill could obviate, nor remedy dispel, the terrible infection. The instant a person was seized, he was struck with despair, which quite disabled him from attempting a cure. The humanity of friends was fatal to themselves, as it was ineffectual to the unhappy sufferers. The prodigious quantity of baggage, which had been removed out of the country into the city, increased the calamity. Most of the inhabitants, for want of lodging, living in little cottages, in which they could scarcely breathe, while the burning heat of the summer increased the pestilential malignity. They were confusedly huddled together, the dead as well as the dying; some crawling through the streets; some lying along by the sides of fountains, whither they had endeavored to repair, to quench the raging thirst, which consumed them. Their very temples were filled with dead bodies; and every part of the city exhibited a dreadful image of death, without the least remedy for the present, or the least hopes with regard to futurity. It seized all with such violence, that they fell one upon another as they passed along the streets. It was also attended with such uncommon pestilential vapors, that the very beasts and birds of prey, though famishing round the walls of the city, would not touch the bodies of those who died of it. Even those who recovered, it left such a tincture of its malignity, that it struck upon their senses. It sometimes effaced the notices and memory of all the passages of their lives; and they knew neither

themselves, nor their nearest relations. Its moral influence has been represented as still more deplorable. The unhappy citizens became hardened and licentious, dreaming only of present pleasure, while dropping hourly into their graves.

Amid these complicated miseries, arising from the malignant influence of pestilence and war, the firmness of Pericles remained unshaken. He was even able, by his eloquence and courage, to revive the drooping hopes of the Athenians. They were preparing to renew, with vigor, the plans of conquest, which had been interrupted by this dire calamity, when their admired leader was himself cut off by the plague, which broke out afresh, and committed new ravages. When he was on his deathbed, his friends expatiated, in his hearing, on the success of his army, and the many trophies he had erected in commemoration of splendid victories obtained over the enemies of his country; "Ah!" exclaimed the expiring chief, "dwell not on these actions, which are rather to be ascribed to fortune than skill. You have forgotten the most valuable part of my character, and that alone on which I can now reflect with pleasure—that none of my fellow-citizens have been compelled, through any action of mine, to assume a mourning robe." It is no doubtful proof of the distinguished talents of this illustrious Athenian, that he administered public affairs, either conjointly with Cimon or alone, during upwards of forty years, and those, too, the most critical and perilous in the annals of the republic.

The third year of the war was chiefly occupied with the sieges of Potidea by the Athenians, and of Platea by the Peloponnesians. The former of these places was soon taken; but the latter made a most vigorous defence. Though a small city, and containing but comparatively a few soldiers, the garrison, consisting of 500 Plateans and Athenians, withstood the whole strength of the Spartan confederacy nearly five years. When at length they were compelled to capitulate, the conditions granted them were most honorable; but no sooner had the allied army obtained possession of the citadel, than they disgracefully violated the treaty, and put to death all the garrison, that had surrendered themselves, in reliance upon the faith of Sparta. What would Lycurgus have said to these degenerate children?

During the siege of Platea, Lesbos revolted from Athens. This island was the most flourishing and valuable of all her

provinces. Spartan emissaries had seduced the Lesbians to this dangerous revolt. These deluded islanders were soon reduced with shame and degradation.

This insurrection was followed by new disturbances at Corcyra, attended with the most dreadful carnage. To the disgrace both of the Athenians and Spartans, they interfered in this civil discord, not to conciliate, but to inflame the passions, and strengthen the animosities of the two conflicting parties. For a considerable time, the principal city was one continued scene of atrocious murders. The temples, the altars of their gods, as well as the habitations of their citizens, streamed with blood. Eurymedon, the Athenian commander, not only was the spectator of this lamentable tragedy, but continually urged the enraged populace to greater enormities. Such cruelties were practised, that, in future times, all sanguinary scenes were compared to "a Coreycean sedition."

About this time, the public opinion at Athens was divided between two individuals of widely different character, but whose influence in the republic was nearly balanced. One of these was Nicias, who was a most able and successful commander, yet a strenuous advocate for peace. Though he had frequently led to victory both the fleets and armies of the Athenian confederacy, he used every advantage as an additional argument for an immediate negotiation; and still urged his countrymen to lose no time in terminating those hostilities, which he deplored as the heaviest calamity, that could have befallen them. But, in all his benevolent efforts to procure a cordial reconciliation, he was constantly opposed by Cleon, a turbulent demagogue, who, by the most daring effrontery and infamous vices, inflamed the passions of the multitude, and elevated himself from the lowest condition to the highest rank in the republic. This bold and arrogant declaimer lost no opportunity of censuring the tardy measures and timid policy of Nicias, and even charged him with cowardice and corruption.

An incident occurred, which tended greatly to increase the self-importance and popularity of this pretended patriot. The Spartans had committed an oversight in transporting a considerable number of their most distinguished citizens to Sphacteria, a small and barren island, opposite to Pylus, which had recently been taken by the Athenians. Here they were blockaded, and reduced to the utmost extremities, by an Athenian squadron. In the first moment of conster-

nation, the Lacedæmonians sued for peace, and Nicias strongly recommended to his fellow-citizens to embrace so favorable an opportunity of obtaining advantageous terms. But Cleon contended with vehemence against the measure, at a time in which the Spartan nobility were at their mercy. He offered to go with a small force to Sphacteria, and take possession of the Spartan prisoners immured there. He was taken at his word; and by accident, rather than by skill, accomplished the enterprise he had undertaken. The Spartan garrison was compelled to surrender at discretion. Inflated with this unexpected and unmerited success, Cleon now aspired to the most important stations, and promised speedily to repair the losses, which had been sustained in remote provinces, by the victories of Brasidas over the Athenian generals, Demosthenes and Thucydides.

But Cleon little knew the difficulty of the task he had imposed upon himself, or the character of the distinguished warrior, with whom he was to contend. With heedless presumption, he rushed forward to meet the brave, the skilful, the victorious Brasidas.

The two armies met, and fought under the walls of Amphipolis. In this engagement, both the commanders were slain. The Athenian fled at the commencement of the action, and was killed by a private soldier, that happened to meet him in his flight; the Spartan received a mortal wound towards its conclusion, and expired in the arms of victory.

The principal obstacles to peace being now removed by the death of Brasidas and Cleon, and both the contending powers having been instructed by the sufferings they had endured, as well as exhausted by their continued labors, a sincere desire of mutual accommodation was expressed. The Athenians were anxious to recover their Thracian and Macedonian possessions, which the arms of Brasidas had wrested from them, and the Spartans no less anxious to regain the distinguished prisoners that had been captured in Sphacteria. Nicias was appointed by the former, and Pleistonax by the latter, with full powers to negotiate. A truce for one year was first proposed; then a treaty of peace was concluded for fifty years, and, finally, a league offensive and defensive was ratified by both parties. The olive branch of peace was hailed with the utmost demonstrations of joy. This is generally denominated the *Peace of Nicias*, from the great influence exerted by that excellent

man in procuring it. This event took place in the tenth year of the war, B. C. 421.

This alliance between Athens and Lacedemon gave offence to the greater part of the remaining states of Greece, who considered it a formidable combination of those powerful states against themselves. Corinth was the first to remonstrate against the treaty; by which it was contended, that the weak were left wholly at the mercy of the strong, and virtually deprived of their independence. The Argives entered so far into the views and feelings of the Corinthians, as to form a league for the protection of the liberties of Greece; and invited all the other republics to unite with them. In the mean time, mutual jealousies revived between the ancient rivals, Athens and Lacedemon, who accused each other of having failed to perform the conditions of the late treaty. The Athenians had refused to surrender the Island of Pylus, which they had taken during the war; and the Spartans had entered into a separate alliance with the Beotians, contrary to the late contract, in which it was stipulated, that "no treaty should be made without the concurrence of both parties." These grounds of complaint would easily have been removed if the peaceful Nicias had possessed unlimited powers. But a youth of illustrious birth, of fascinating manners, of seductive and brilliant talents, then began to make a figure at Athens, and aspired to the direction of the republic. This youth was Alcibiades, the relative and pupil and exact counterpart of Pericles; the intimate friend and beloved companion of Socrates; but, it is necessary to add, the worst enemy of the Athenian state. He first prevailed on the Athenians to enter into the Argive alliance; and afterwards, by a dishonest artifice, outwitted the Lacedemonian ambassadors, who came with full powers to settle differences and explain misunderstandings. He persuaded them, under a color of friendship, not to let the people know, at first, what full powers their commission gave them; but to intimate, that they came only to treat, and make proposals; for that, otherwise, the Athenians would grow insolent in their demands, and extort from them unreasonable terms. They were so well satisfied with the prudence and sincerity of this advice, that he drew them from Nicias, to rely entirely upon himself; and, the next day, when the people were assembled, and the ambassadors introduced, Alcibiades, with a very obliging air, demanded of them, with what

powers they were come. They made answer, that they were not come as plenipotentiaries. Upon which, he instantly changed his voice and countenance, and, exclaiming against them as notorious liars, bid the people take care how they transacted any thing with men on whom they could place so little dependence. The people dismissed the ambassadors in a rage.

Unable to rest till some object, commensurate to his vast ambition, presented itself, Alcibiades procured his election to the chief command of the Athenian army, and prevailed upon his fellow-citizens to undertake the invasion and conquest of Sicily.

When the question was debated in the Athenian senate and before the general assembly, it was strenuously opposed by Nicias, who used many arguments to prove the impolicy and hazard of the projected expedition; and concluded with warning the magistrates and elder citizens against the wild ambition of Alcibiades and his youthful companions, whose measures, he predicted, would lead to the overthrow of the state. But ineffectual were his remonstrances and entreaties, when the youthful orator arose, and drew a flattering picture of the wealth of Sicily, the ease with which it might be subjugated, and the door it would open to further and more splendid conquests. Already he imagined Sicily and Carthage and Africa prostrate at the feet of Athens, or pouring their riches into her treasury. Dazzled with these brilliant prospects, the assembly decreed war with Sicily, and appointed Nicias, Alcibiades and Lamachus joint commanders of the expedition.

The last attempt of Nicias to dissuade his countrymen from this fatal enterprise, by magnifying the difficulty of its execution, produced an opposite effect. The obstacles, which were unable to conquer, only animated the courage of the assembly; and it was determined, that the generals should be invested with full authority to raise such sums of money, and to levy such a body of troops, as might ensure success to their arms.

The magnitude of the preparations increased the hopes and the ardour of all ranks of men in the republic. The old expected that nothing could resist such a numerous and well-equipped armament. The young eagerly seized an occasion to gratify their curiosity and love of knowledge in a distant navigation, and to share the honors of such a glorious enterprise. The rich exulted in displaying their

magnificence; the poor rejoiced in their assurance of pay, sufficient to relieve their present wants, and in the prospect of obtaining by their arms the means of future ease and happiness. Instead of finding any difficulty to complete the levies, the great difficulty consisted in deciding the preference of valor and merit among those who solicited to serve; and the whole complement of forces, to be employed by sea and land, consisted of chosen men.

Amidst the general alacrity felt, or at least expressed, by the people of all descriptions, (for the dread of incurring public censure made several express what they did not feel,) Socrates alone ventured openly and boldly to condemn the expedition, and to predict the future calamities of his country. But the authority of the sage was unable to check the course of their enthusiasm.

When the appointed day arrived, the whole inhabitants of Athens, whether citizens or strangers, assembled early in the Pireus, to admire the greatest armament ever collected in a Grecian harbor. A hundred galleys were adorned with all the splendor of naval pomp; the troops destined to embark vied with each other in the elegance of their dress and the brightness of their arms. The alacrity painted in every face, and the magnificence displayed with profusion in every part of the equipage, represented a triumphal show, rather than the stern image of war. But the solidity and greatness of the armament proved, that it was intended for use, not for ostentation. Amidst this glare of external pageantry, which accompanied the adventurous youth, their friends and kinsmen could not suppress a few parting tears, when they considered the length of the voyage, their various dangers by flood and field, and the uncertainty of beholding again the dearest pledges of their affection. But these partial expressions of grief were speedily interrupted by the animating sounds of the trumpet, which issued at once from a hundred ships, and provoked sympathetic acclamations from the shore. The captains then offered solemn prayers to the gods, which were answered by corresponding vows from the spectators. The customary libations were poured out in goblets of gold and silver; and after the triumphant Pean had been sung in full chorus, the whole fleet, at once, set sail, and contended for the prize of naval skill and celerity.

Scarcely had they arrived in Sicily, when Alcibiades was recalled, to take his trial for alleged impieties and sacrilege.

The conduct of the Sicilian war then devolved on Nicias, whose military talents had stood a long and severe test.

Nicias was at first successful, as he had hitherto always been. But the tide of success soon turned. The Syracusans were animated by the presence and aided by the talents of Gylippus, a Lacedemonian general, who had forced an entrance into the besieged city, at the head of a few Spartan troops. From the time of his arrival, the Athenian invaders met with nothing but a train of defeats and calamities. In one of the first engagements with the Syracusans, Lamachus was killed; a brave and enterprising general, whose loss, at such a crisis, was severely felt. Soon after, an epidemic disease, which spread through the Athenian camp, and with which Nicias himself was affected, committed fearful ravages. This malady, added to the harassing and destructive warfare, in which he was engaged, obliged the Athenian general to write, in the most pressing terms, for immediate supplies. An attempt was made to retrieve their losses, by a powerful reenforcement, under the command of Demosthenes* and Eurymedon. But the attempt was fruitless. Gylippus attacked them in separate bodies; and, having reduced them to the most distressing extremities, compelled the several divisions of the Athenian army to surrender. Such was the fury of the Syracusans, that they doomed all the Athenian prisoners to labor in the quarries, or sold them as slaves, except the generals Nicias and Demosthenes, who were put to death, notwithstanding the earnest entreaty of Gylippus to save their lives.

One circumstance, that serves to enliven the gloom, and diminish the horrors, of this calamitous scene, is deserving of particular notice. The Sicilians were so enchanted with the tenderness and melody of the verses of Euripides, when recited by their Athenian captives, that they liberated all, who were able to repeat his most beautiful passages. These emancipated captives hastened back to Athens, and cast themselves at the feet of the venerable poet, and hailed him, with tears of joy, as their deliverer from dreary bondage and lingering death.

The news of the defeat being carried to Athens, the citizens, at first, would not believe it, and even sentenced to death the man who first published the tidings; but when it was confirmed, all the Athenians were seized with the

* Perhaps great-grandfather of the immortal orator.

utmost consternation. The venerable members of the Areopagus expressed the majesty of silent sorrow; but the piercing cries of wo extended many a mile along the lofty walls, which joined the Pireus to the city; and the licentious populace raged with unbridled fury against the diviners and orators, whose blind predictions and ambitious harangues had promoted an expedition eternally fatal to their country. The distress of the Athenians was too great to admit the comfort of sympathy; but, had they been capable of receiving, they had little reason to expect that melancholy consolation. The tidings so afflicting to them gave unspeakable joy to their neighbors. Many feared, most hated, and all envied a people, who had long usurped the dominion of Greece; and the consequence was, that many of the allies and dependents prepared to assert their rights. Cicero had reason to observe, speaking of the battles in the harbor of Syracuse, that it was there the troops of Athens, as well as their galleys, were ruined and sunk; and that, in this harbor, the power and glory of the Athenians were miserably shipwrecked.

The disasters experienced by the Athenians in Sicily, and their more recent sufferings under the cruel tyranny of the Four Hundred,* were soon forgotten, when Alcibiades turned the tide of success in their favor, by a short but triumphant career of victory. But no sooner was that consummate general dismissed and exiled, than the state of the Athenian republic became more hopeless and desperate than ever. A few efforts, indeed, were made by the Athenians, which resembled the faint struggles of an expiring warrior. But, from that time, it was evident to every observer, that the ancient and once flourishing republic, which had alone withstood the legions of Persia, was upon the brink of ruin. Two things accelerated this event, the divided counsels of the Athenians, and the renewed vigor of the Spartans. The former appointed no less than ten

* The tyranny of the Four Hundred was a temporary change, that took place in the government of Athens, about the time in which Alcibiades was recalled. The conduct of this aristocracy was most sanguinary—their measures most oppressive. Every day of their short reign was characterized by new atrocities; every vestige of freedom was abolished; and Athens was on the point of being sold, by her unprincipled rulers, into the hands of the Spartans. From the tyranny of the Four Hundred, the Athenians were delivered by Thrasybulus.

commanders, with equal powers, to succeed Alcibiades in the command of the fleet. Some of these were men of approved valor and patriotism; but others were either little known, or notorious only for their vices. These counteracted each other, and gave additional energy to the decided measures of Lysander, who had been recently appointed to the command of the Spartan forces by land and sea; a general of pre-eminent talents, but disgraced by the most sordid avarice, and a total want of integrity.

As Lysander acted so conspicuous a part in Greece, at that time, and was the means of producing a fatal change in the character and laws of Sparta, it will not be improper to describe, more particularly, the principles on which he acted, in his brilliant administration. Nothing could be more remote from genuine Spartan integrity, than the political conduct of Lysander, through every step of his public life. His ruling passion was avarice; but the means of gratifying this insatiable desire were matters of perfect indifference to him. Justly or unjustly, by force or fraud, he was bent upon aggrandizing himself and enriching his country. He scrupled not to pursue this unworthy object by the adoption of measures the most perfidious and unjust. Not content with the spoils of war, and what are usually considered the legitimate fruits of conquest, he wrested, with the hand of violence, the property of the defenceless, or obtained, by craft and intrigue, those treasures, which he was unable to seize by force. Now he was seen levying contributions on the Ionian cities and states, with the assumed authority of an eastern despot; and now most obsequiously soliciting pecuniary aid at the subordinate courts of Persian satraps, submitting tamely to their insults, and flattering their vices, with the hope of securing their wealth. Having succeeded beyond measure in his avaricious designs, he prevailed on the senate of Sparta, by bribery and corrupt influence, to repeal those laws of Lycurgus, which had forbidden the introduction of gold and silver coin into the republic; and then poured a stream of ill-gotten wealth into his country, which soon enervated and destroyed it. The perfidiousness of his character may be gathered from the favorite maxim ascribed to him, and in which he gloried; "Children," said he, "should be deceived with toys, but men by oaths."

Such was the general character of the person who was chosen by the Spartans to prosecute the war in a season of

public danger, and when more than ordinary vigor was necessary. Nor were they disappointed in the expectations they had indulged of his success. After having, in the first year of his command, gained several victories both by sea and land, he was superseded by another general; since, by the laws of Sparta, no commander, however successful he might have been, could retain his appointment longer than one year. Callicratidas, who succeeded him, was a genuine Spartan, not unworthy of the purest days of the republic, a perfect contrast to the unprincipled and avaricious Lysander. Ignorant of the language and manners of a court, unaccustomed to flatter those whom he despised, and too independent to brook the insolence of wealth and pomp, Callicratidas soon found it was vain to solicit the Persian court for supplies; nor could he, like his predecessor, extort them from those who were in alliance with them. Counteracted in all his efforts by Lysander, who had unwillingly resigned the command to him, and cut off from all resources for the prosecution of the war, he found it necessary to risk an engagement with a very superior force, near the islands or rocks of Arginusae, south of Lesbos. All that determined valor could accomplish, was done by Callicratidas, before he received his mortal wound; but, after that event took place, the Athenians took and destroyed a great part of the Spartan fleet. The victory they obtained was dearly purchased, but complete. Yet such was the base ingratitude of the Athenians to the conquerors, that they tried the ten commanders of the fleet, on a charge of having neglected to pay funeral honors to the slain, eight of whom were condemned, and six executed; none of the senate, except Socrates, having dared to oppose this unjust sentence.

In consequence of the death of Callicratidas, the command of the Spartan forces was again intrusted to Lysander, who soon afterwards seized a favorable moment, near Egos Potamos, when a great part of the crews of the Athenian ships were on shore, to bring up his fleet, and, almost without resistance, take possession of the whole fleet of Athens, consisting of upwards of a hundred and fifty galleys. Five thousand prisoners were taken, all of whom were massacred by Lysander.

The total annihilation of their fleet decided the fate of the Athenians. The only staff, on which they had so frequently leaned in the hour of extreme debility, was now

broken. Their last resource had failed them. There remained nothing to impede the victorious progress of Lysander, who boasted, with truth, that, in one hour, he had, and almost without bloodshed, terminated a war of twenty-seven years. After having occupied the few remaining cities and fortresses, that still adhered to the Athenians, he besieged Athens both by sea and land. Its inhabitants, unshaken by adversity, and gathering energy from despair, resolved to defend the city to the last extremity, and even passed a decree to punish those, who should first propose to surrender. Famine and disease, the inevitable consequences of a protracted siege, at length prevailed, and compelled this high-minded people to negotiate with their ancient rival. The eloquent Theramenes and nine others were deputed as ambassadors, with full powers, to conduct the negotiation. The terms, proposed by the Spartans, and to which the Athenians were ultimately obliged to accede, were most humiliating. The city was to be surrendered, and occupied by a Spartan garrison; the walls and fortifications of the city and harbor to be demolished; all their ships of war, except twelve galleys, to be given up; and they were to enter into a league, to serve the Lacedemonians in all their military or naval expeditions, to the utmost of their power. No sooner was this treaty ratified, than Lysander entered Athens in triumph, and demolished the walls to the sound of martial music, which celebrated the deliverance of Greece from the tyranny of Athens.]

Thus on the 16th of May, 404 years before Christ, at the end of 27 years from the commencement of this unhappy conflict, Athens, the glory of Greece, the mistress of the arts and sciences, was taken by the confederate armies, and her walls, her towers and her fortresses, levelled to the ground.

The day, says Dr. Gillies, was concluded, by the victorious confederate armies, with a magnificent festival, in which the recitation of poems, as usual, formed a part of the entertainment. Among other pieces, was rehearsed the *Electra* of Euripides, and particularly that affecting chorus, "We come, O daughter of Agamemnon, to thy rustic and humble roof." These words were scarcely uttered, when the whole assembly melted into tears. The forlorn condition of that young and virtuous princess, expelled the royal palace of her father, and inhabiting a

miserable cottage, in want and wretchedness, recalled to mind the dreadful vicissitudes of fortune, which had befallen Athens, once mistress of the sea, and sovereign of Greece, but deprived, in one fatal hour, of her ships, her walls and her strength, and reduced from the pride of prosperity and power to misery, dependence and servitude, without exerting one memorable effort to brighten the last moment of her destiny, and to render her fall illustrious.

The Peloponnesians vainly boasted, that the fall of Athens would be the era of Grecian liberty. Athens, indeed, tasted that bitter cup, which lawless pride and ambition generally present to their votaries. By her situation, her genius and prosperity, she seemed designed as the guardian of Greece; but her ambition to govern or to conquer, which none inflamed more than Pericles, was as rash and presumptuous as it was foolish and vain. Athens, thus humbled, prostrated, and crushed, never rose to her former state; and the powers, which triumphed over her, were involved in her destiny; resembling the members of a body, which revolt from the head, cast it down, and trample it in the dust.

[*Socrates*.—Socrates, the most distinguished among ancient philosophers, was the son of Sophroniscus, a statuary. He was born at Athens, B. C. 470. He was educated in his father's profession; which seems to have impressed his mind with a taste for proportion and beauty, both as they appear in the natural and moral world. But his insatiable ardor in the pursuit of knowledge, and the increasing interest he felt in physical, literary and moral researches, prevented him from continuing to practise an art, which was then in high repute, and in which he would probably have risen to eminence. He was endowed with a penetrating and comprehensive mind; and became eminently distinguished as an instructor. He possessed unexampled good nature and a universal love to mankind. After attending all the public schools, and inquiring diligently into the different systems taught in them, he arrived at a decided conviction, that they were completely erroneous, and more calculated to bewilder, than to instruct. He rightly judged, that the best use of knowledge is to form principles of action. The subtilities, the speculations, the theories of preceding philosophers, he therefore rejected, as worse than useless; and undertook to teach all, who were willing to receive his instructions, a more simple, pure and practical system of ethics. So attentive was he to the happiness and

advantage of his country, that he seemed the common father of the republic. But as it is so very difficult to correct the aged, and to induce people to change long cherished principles, he devoted his labors principally to the instruction of youth. He had no open school, like the rest of the philosophers, nor set times for his lessons. He had no benches prepared; nor did he ever mount a professor's chair. He was the philosopher of all times and seasons. He taught in all places and upon all occasions—in walking, conversation at meals, in the army and in the midst of the camp, in the public assemblies of the senate and people. He disputed in a great measure by means of questions. In consequence of this, the interrogative method of disputing is still denominated *Socratic*. By means of his questions, he was wonderfully successful in confuting and confounding the sophists, in detecting their frauds, and unmasking their characters.

Aristophanes, the comic poet, was engaged to expose him upon the stage. He composed a piece called *the Clouds*, in which he introduced the philosopher; suspended in a basket, uttering the most ridiculous absurdities. Socrates, who was present at this exhibition, showed not the least emotion, and as some strangers were present, who desired to know the original, for whom the play was intended, he rose from his seat, and showed himself during the whole representation. This was the first blow struck at him; and it was not till twenty years after, that Melitus appeared in a formal manner as his accuser, and entered a regular process against him. His accusation consisted of two heads. The first was, that he did not admit the gods acknowledged by the republic, and introduced new divinities; the second, that he corrupted the youth of Athens. Melitus concluded with inferring, that sentence of death ought to be passed against Socrates. How much truth was contained in the first part of the charge, it is not easy to determine; but it is certain, that, amidst so much zeal and superstition as then reigned in Athens, he never durst openly oppose the received religion. But it is very probable, from the discourses he frequently held with his friends, that, in his heart, he despised and derided their monstrous opinions and ridiculous mysteries, as having no other foundation than the fables of the poets; and that he had attained to the notion of the one only true God.

The friends of Socrates too plainly perceived the danger, which threatened him, and earnestly desired to exert their influence and talents on his behalf. The eloquent Lysias, especially, who had been one of his disciples, and was affectionately attached to him, earnestly entreated permission to deliver a pathetic oration he had prepared for the occasion; but Socrates, while he admired the composition, as a display of talent, peremptorily refused the request, because its tone was too supplicatory for a character unjustly accused. He was at length prevailed upon to undertake his own defence, not so much with the hope of protracting his life, as in compliance with the pressing solicitations of his friends. During his trial he employed neither artifice nor eloquence. He had no recourse to solicitation or entreaty. But his discourse was bold, manly, generous, without passion, without emotion, full of the noble liberty of the philosopher, with no other ornament than that of truth, and brightened universally with the character and language of innocence. "My whole employment," said he, "is to persuade the young and old against too much love for the body, for riches and all other precarious things; and against too little regard for the soul, which ought to be the object of their affection. Pass on me what sentence you please, Athenians; but I can neither repent, nor change my conduct. I must not abandon nor suspend a function, which God himself has imposed on me. He has charged me with the care of instructing my fellow-citizens. Should you resolve to acquit me, I should not hesitate, for the future, to make answer, Athenians, I honor and love you. But I shall choose to obey God rather than you; and, to my latest breath, shall never renounce my philosophy, nor cease to exhort and reprove you, according to my custom, by telling each of you, when you come in my way, 'My good friend, and citizen of the most famous city in the world, for wisdom and valor, are you not ashamed to have no other thoughts, than of amassing wealth, and of acquiring glory, credit and dignities, while you neglect the treasures of prudence, truth and wisdom, and take no pains in rendering your soul as good and as perfect as it is capable of being?'" After some further observations, he remarks, "For the rest, Athenians, if, in my present extreme danger, I do not imitate the behavior of those, who, upon less emergencies, have implored and supplicated their judges with tears, and have brought forth their children, relations and friends into court,

it is not through pride and obstinacy, nor any contempt for you, but solely for your honor, and for that of the whole city. You should know, that there are among our citizens those, who do not regard death as an evil, and who give that name only to injustice and infamy."

Socrates pronounced this discourse with a firm and intrepid tone. His air, his action, his visage, expressed nothing of the accused. His steady, uninterrupted course of obstinate virtue, which had made him, in many cases, appear singular, and oppose whatever he thought illegal or unjust, without any regard to times or persons, had procured him a great deal of envy and ill-will; so that, however slight the proofs against him, the faction was powerful enough to find him guilty. He was condemned to drink the juice of hemlock.

Socrates received his sentence with the utmost composure. Apollodorus, one of his disciples, launching out into bitter invectives and lamentations, that his master should die innocent; "What," replied Socrates, with a smile, "would you have me die guilty? Melitus and Anytus may kill, but they cannot hurt me."

The execution of the sentence was delayed thirty days, on account of a law, which prohibited the putting to death of any criminal during the absence of the priest of Apollo, who annually sailed to the isle of Delos, to offer sacrifices. During this interval, the prison was continually thronged with his affectionate disciples, who came to administer to his comfort, and receive his last instructions.

The day before his execution, Crito, his intimate friend, came to him early in the morning, to let him know, that it depended only upon himself to quit the prison; that the jailor was gained; that he would find the doors open, and offered him a safe retreat in Thessaly. Socrates laughed at his proposal, and asked him whether he knew any place out of Attica where people did not die? Crito urged the thing very seriously, adding argument upon argument, to induce his escape. Socrates expressed his gratitude, but rejected his offer; because he considered it unjust to escape from the laws.

The day of his death was employed in conversing with his friends respecting the immortality of the soul, which he endeavored to prove. At sunset the cup of poison was brought by a servant of the magistrates, who was so much affected that he turned his back and fell a weeping. So-

crates, having taken the cup, kept silence for some time, and then drank off the draught with an amazing tranquillity of aspect.

Such was the end of this great philosopher, in the seventieth year of his age, B. C. 400.

It was not till some time after his death that the people began to perceive and lament their mistake. Athens was in universal dismay and consternation. All exercises were suspended, and his accusers called to account for his death.

After some time the inhabitants of the city put on mourning for him, as if a public calamity had befallen them; and all agreed to censure his accusers and judges, some of whom were put to death, and others banished. Nor were the Athenians satisfied with these transient expressions of regret. They decreed the highest honors to his memory. They erected a statue of brass, executed by Lysippus, in the most frequented place of resort. They enrolled his name among their subordinate divinities, and dedicated a temple to his memory.]

[*Fine Arts.*—From the defeat of the Persian power to the death of Alexander, a period of 180 years, the genius of Greece was displayed in the brightest splendor. The name of the painter and the sculptor was celebrated in festivals; their works were exhibited at the public games; and they were reputed to confer, by every specimen of their art, distinguished honor upon their country. The monuments of their talents reflected lustre upon their character, and gave it the highest respectability; as it was their noble province to express the likeness of heroes, and to embody the perfections of the gods. To be publicly distinguished with higher honors than his competitors, was the great object of the artist, and his unremitting and ardent efforts to excel them, gave to his works that grace, beauty and spirit, that exquisite expression of passions, and that appropriate dignity of character, which mark their finest performances.

The arts brought to recollection by the most lively images the great events and characters of history. Every public edifice in Athens was filled with the statues of warriors, magistrates, legislators, philosophers, and orators. In one place stood Miltiades frowning destruction on Persia; in another, the placid Socrates, the thoughtful Solon, and the impassioned Demosthenes. Every street presented an Athenian with some striking example of valor, wisdom, or

patriotism. Wherever he turned his eyes he saw some monument raised to perpetuate the renown of his ancestors; and the precious tribute of the arts, so liberally paid to all persons of genius, courage and virtue, gave the keenest excitement to the display of every species of excellence.]

After this period, however, many great men appeared in Greece; but no general bond of union could be formed. Intervals of peace were short; and their few virtuous characters only shone like passing meteors, for a moment. If Alcibiades was famous for his talents, he was no less infamous for his vices; and the few splendid actions he performed were utterly insufficient to counteract the general effects of caprice, crooked policy, and a total want of virtue.

Athens had scarcely recovered a measure of liberty, by the exertions of Thrasybulus,* and begun to respire, after a shock so paralyzing, and calamities so dreadful, when war again broke out. This is commonly called the Beotian war. Instead of rising, as did the former, from the Peloponnesus, it now pointed its avenging flames toward that haughty combination of powers, and menaced them with a fate similar to that of Athens. It is remarkable, that, as the sun of ancient Greece was still lingering on the western horizon, as if loath to set, she at times displayed an effulgence of genius, which few nations could boast, when enjoying their meridian of glory. In the days of glory which Sparta and Athens had seen, it was little expected that Beotia would ever be the terror of Greece, would not only excite their jealousies, but alarm their fears, and would render necessary their utmost exertions, not to say in defence of their honor, but of their national existence.

Historians, without a dissenting voice, allow Epaminondas to have been great in the various characters of statesman, hero, patriot and commander. The Thebans and their confederates were led by this most accomplished general into the Peloponnesus. Lacedemon was their mark. They ravaged the country of Laconia, even to the gates of Sparta. That proud and powerful people had not seen such a day for five hundred years. The skill and valor of Agesilaus saved them.

* After the Peloponnesian war, the government of Athens was usurped by 30 men, "the dependants and creatures of Sparta," who, on account of their tyranny, are generally called the *Thirty Tyrants*. From these Athens was delivered by Thrasybulus.—Ed.

The course of human affairs resembles a revolving wheel, some parts of which are perpetually rising, some falling; some are up, and some down. It is incredible that Lacedæmon should be compelled to apply to Athens for aid, whom she had so lately conquered; but this she did, and that with success. The war progressed with vigor, was protracted, had various turns, and was at length terminated in a general battle at Mantinæa. This battle is allowed to have been the most equally matched, the ablest conducted, and the most bravely fought, of any one ever fought in Greece. [While Epaminondas was fighting in the midst of the battle with astonishing ardor, a Spartan gave him a mortal wound with a javelin across his breast. He was carried into the camp, and the surgeons, after the battle, examining the wound, declared that he would expire, as soon as the head of the dart was drawn out of it. All present were in the utmost affliction, while the only concern he expressed, was about his arms and the fate of the battle. When they showed him his shield, and assured him that the Thebans had gained the victory, turning towards his friends with a calm and serene air,—“All then is well,” said he; and soon after expired. The death of this “wonder-working man,” however, roused the drooping spirits of the Spartan allies, and, at last, rendered the victory doubtful. It was claimed on both sides.]

With Epaminondas expired the martial spirit of his country; for, although the Thebans maintained the ascendancy for some years, and were able for a while even to control the decisions of the Amphictyonic council, yet they gradually sunk to their former insignificance. This great general terminated his career in the 2d year of the 104th Olympiad, 363 years before Christ, and may be considered as one of the last expiring lights of the Grecian republics.

Eight years after the death of Epaminondas, Alexander the Great was born, generally acknowledged to be the first of heroes and of conquerors. Under his powerful sceptre, the Greeks, the Persians, and even the Indians, formed but one amazing field of conquest.

Empire first having taken her flight from Persia and from the Grecian republics, seemed for a while hovering on other shores and coasts, as in doubt where to settle.

More than 800 years before the Christian era, a colony from the ancient city of Tyre, whose history we have



Death of Socrates.



Demosthenes declaiming upon the Sea shore.

already noticed, crossed the Mediterranean, and settled in Africa. Those enterprising adventurers, conducted by the celebrated Dido, founded the city and empire of Carthage. The Carthaginians, by degrees, extended themselves along the shores of Africa, and subdued the islands of the Mediterranean, great part of Sicily, and even many islands in the Atlantic ocean. They succeeded, and very far exceeded their mother country, in the empire of commerce, and were for many years masters of the sea. But the Carthaginians, like the Trojans, were destined, after flourishing a while, to enhance the triumph and exalt the fame of their conquerors. They were checked by the Greeks, and finally subdued by the Romans.

The Romans, about this time, flourished under a consular administration. Manlius Torquatus, Decius Mus, and others, were contemporary with Alexander. But the Romans were yet unknown to fame; their wars not having extended beyond the small tribes and states of Italy; for it is remarkable, that, after Rome had been an independent state 360 years, her territories did not extend twenty miles from the city.

But a power was now rapidly rising much nearer to Greece, which was to change the scene in Europe and Asia, and to influence the state of numerous nations to ages unborn.

Northwestwardly of the head of the Archipelago, and separated from that sea by several small Grecian republics, lay the country of Macedon. Its exact size, as also its boundaries northwardly, were little known even to the ancients, and still less to modern geographers. The country was rough, mountainous, and, for the most part, wild and barren. As early as the Persian invasion, these parts were little known. They had been colonized and subdued by the Athenians, but had revolted in the course of the Peloponnesian war.

Amyntas, the grandfather of Alexander the Great, was the first prince of that dynasty, of any considerable note in history. He is represented by Quintus Curtius as a man of great abilities, equally brave in the field, and wise in council. But, overwhelmed with difficulties both foreign and domestic, he was able only to plant those seeds of greatness, which were afterwards to flourish, and influence the destiny of half the nations of the earth. During his reign, the Macedonians were too wild and barbarous to coalesce in

any settled plan of policy, civil or military. Of course they were kept in perpetual fear from the inroads of the Illyrian tribes, which skirted them on the north.

The Greeks, likewise, though wasting away by swift degrees, in the fires of civil war, were still warlike and powerful, under the administrations of Cimon, Pericles and Epaminondas. The life of Amyntas was strongly embittered by intrigues and conspiracies, in his own palace, carried on by his famous, or rather infamous queen Eurydice: a calamity, which, amid all their greatness, seemed to pursue that whole dynasty of Macedonian kings, until it exterminated the posterity of Philip, king of Macedon.

Amyntas had three sons, Alexander, Perdiccas and Philip, the father of Alexander the Great. After a troublesome reign, he was succeeded by his eldest son, Alexander, who found full employment in repelling the invasion of his ferocious and warlike neighbors. In an unsuccessful war with the Illyrians, he was compelled to become tributary, and to give a royal hostage. He gave his younger brother Philip, who, during his residence with those rude but martial people, gained a knowledge of them, which was afterwards of eminent service to him; though he was then but a boy. On a similar occasion, being afterwards sent to Thebes, he there enjoyed the greatest advantages.

Epaminondas then flourished; and taking Philip under his immediate protection and care, he educated him, together with his own son, in the Grecian literature, in which he made great proficiency. The school of adversity gives lessons of wisdom, and imparts an energy to man, almost indispensable to greatness. For the most part, the pampered and delicate children of easy fortune are enervated in the germ and blossom of life, and are forever hushed, on the downy lap of prosperity, to inglorious repose.

It was not so with Philip. In those adverse fortunes, which could not break his spirit, he learnt patience, humility and wisdom. He found ample resources in his own mind, made strong by exertion, and rich by experience.

[*Most important events of the life of Philip.*—After spending nine or ten years in Thebes, he was called to the throne of Macedon by the death of his brother Perdiccas. Possessing great abilities, and equal ambition, he cast his eyes over the wide prospect; and allured by the most brilliant hopes of aggrandizing his family, invited by the degenerate

effeminacy of the Athenians, the discord of the Peloponnesians, and the general weakness of all Greece, he laid the plan of an empire, which his son was destined to execute, and to exceed.

[The circumstances under which he ascended the throne, were peculiarly unfavorable. The kingdom was surrounded by foreign enemies, and rent asunder by intestine divisions.] There had been no settled administration; but civil war, assassinations, revolutions and anarchy. Thus situated, the first care of Philip was to secure the affection, to augment the resources, and to improve the discipline of his people. With consummate address he settled the differences, that related to the regal succession, till every competitor was set aside; and then by bribes, concessions, or vigorous movements, he induced the enemies who threatened his kingdom to retire, and thus freed his subjects from the alarm of invasion. A treaty of peace was concluded with the Athenians, and reviving commerce soon poured a stream of wealth into his impoverished kingdom.

About this time two circumstances conspired to augment the influence and reputation of Philip; first, a recent prediction of the Delphian oracle that Macedon would recover its ancient dignity under the son of Amyntas; and second, the discovery of a gold mine at Crenidæ, afterwards called *Philippi*, which produced annually more than a thousand talents. To this discovery a great part of his future successes are to be ascribed; for he accomplished much more by negotiation than by arms; and the success of his negotiations usually depended upon the bribes he offered.

So degraded was the political state of Greece, that there was scarcely an orator, statesman, or senate, he did not sooner or later corrupt, even not excepting the once venerable council of Amphictyons. He once remarked, "that he despaired of taking no city, into which he could introduce a mule laden with gold."

A penetrating mind, like that of Themistocles, would have detected, at the commencement of Philip's reign, his design to make himself master of Greece; and an alarm would have been sounded from the Ionian to the Ægean sea. But the ambitious prince of Macedon had no such rival genius with whom to contend. His fair promises, his specious pretexts, and his show of moderation and clemency, were sufficient to deceive the degenerate patriots of Greece, who saw, in general without alarm, his daily encroachments

on the rights and possessions of independent states, and his interference in all their disputes. It did not occur to them that he secretly fomented these dissensions for the purpose of rendering them his more easy prey; and the assumed lenity, the boasted justice of his conduct, were but designed to throw them off their guard, and conceal his real intentions.

In the third year of his reign he married Olympias, a beautiful princess of Epirus, whose personal and mental attractions made her no less worthy of his regard, than the greatness of her family, descended from Achilles, rendered her worthy of sharing his throne.

Nothing could be more favorable to his wishes than the contentions of the lesser Grecian republics, which were carried on incessantly, during the first years of his reign. The most important of these was the Phocian or Sacred war. This was excited by the council of Amphictyons, who claimed the right of keeping the temple of Apollo, its vast treasures, and its consecrated possessions, subject to their direction,—a right which had been violated by some of the inhabitants of Phocis, who had presumed to plough up some land sacred to Apollo. For this heinous offence, all Greece was summoned to take up arms against them. Sparta and Athens, however, not only dared to disobey the mandate, but secretly promised the Phocians assistance.

A desperate but unsuccessful effort was made by Philomelus, the Phocian general, to defend his country against the confederate Greeks. Being defeated, in a fit of desperation he threw himself headlong from the rocks, to which he had fled from the vengeance of his enemies.

For several years Philip watched the progress of this destructive contest, and secretly fanned the flames of discord without espousing either party. At length, his assistance was solicited by the Thessalians, and thus an occasion was given to interfere in the concerns of Greece. Religion was on this occasion a veil for his ambition. To avenge the insults offered to Apollo, and punish a sacrilegious people, were his professed designs in joining the allied Greeks; but the result proved, that his real object was to gain such an ascendancy in their councils, as should prepare the way for the future sovereignty of Greece. His accession to the league soon terminated the Phocian war, and was rewarded by a seat in the council of Amphictyons, instead of the republic of Phocis, which had been expelled.

This was an important step towards the accomplishment of his ambitious projects, which, in addition to the superintendency of the Pythian games, transferred to him from the Corinthians, enabled him, henceforward, to govern both the general councils and the oracles of Greece.

Upon this system of cautious and well-dissembled policy, Philip continued to act, during his reign, continually invading the rights and possessions of neighboring states, yet, at the same time, justifying his aggressions with so much plausibility of reasoning, and such apparent equity, that it was scarcely possible to condemn the measures, however unjust in themselves.

All the more powerful republics were either deceived by his fair professions, or corrupted by his gold. The Spartans, though fully sensible of the danger which threatened Greece, were too degenerate, or too much exhausted, to make an effort in behalf of their expiring liberties. The Athenians, immersed in luxury and vice, perpetually amused with their theatrical entertainments and splendid shows, were little inclined to oppose the ambitious views of Philip, though they were best able to attempt it with vigor. A temporary and successful effort was indeed made by the brave and patriotic Phocion, to counteract the designs of Philip on the flourishing island of Eubœa, to which that prince attached so much importance as to call it *the fetters of Greece*. The intrigues of the king of Macedon in that colony were detected, and his legions vanquished, by the prudence and valor of that illustrious Athenian; but, having attained this object, the senate and people of Athens again resigned themselves to indolent security and criminal pleasures.

Among the means employed by Philip to deceive the Athenians, the most successful was bribery. He thus acquired numerous partisans within the walls, and even in the senate of Athens. All the orators, except the celebrated Demosthenes, were in the Macedonian interest. Well convinced of the influence, which they possessed over the popular assemblies of Athens, Philip had spared no expense nor exertions to secure these demagogues, who led the public opinion, and governed its decisions. Demades, a sordid but eloquent orator, Eubulus, a venal flatterer of the vices of the common people, and even the energetic and sublime Eschines himself, were bought by Macedonian gold. Demosthenes, alone, remained inflexible. Neither

flatteries, nor censures, proffered wealth nor honors, could seduce his incorruptible mind. With the most determined courage, he sounded the trumpet of alarm, and poured forth his philippics, at every fresh aggression of the king of Macedon. Nor did he rest, till, by the force of his eloquence, bearing down all opposition, he stirred up his infatuated country to make an essay, at least, towards stemming the torrent of ambition.

The attempt of the combined armies of Athens and Thebes at Cheronea was vigorous, but unsuccessful; chiefly on account of the want of skill in their commanders, all of whom were notoriously unfit for their station. Had their conduct at Cheronea, in which Philip triumphed over the liberties of Greece, equalled either the patriotic hopes of Demosthenes, or the valor of the troops employed in it; had Phocion been appointed to the command, who had already vanquished, in Eubea and Thrace, the legions of Philip; or had the heedless impetuosity of the Athenians permitted them to estimate more accurately the strength of the enemy, the result would probably have been widely different, and the ambitious projects of Philip had been completely frustrated. But, unhappily for Greece, her heroic bands were committed, on this occasion, to the unskilful Lysicles, the voluptuous Chares, and the perfidious Theagenes, who fell into the snare which Philip had laid for them, and were defeated with great loss. Lysicles was afterwards tried and condemned for his failure, on which occasion one of the judges thus addressed him: "You, Lysicles, were general of the army; a thousand citizens were slain; two thousand taken prisoners; a trophy has been erected to the dishonor of this city; and all Greece is enslaved. You had the command when all these things happened; and yet you dare to live, and view the light of the sun, and blush not to appear publicly in the forum; you, Lysicles, who are born the monument of your country's shame!" The conqueror treated his vanquished foes with great clemency, and dismissed many of the prisoners without ransom. This victory was quickly followed by a treaty of peace between Athens and Macedon, which left the Thebans at the mercy of the latter, and virtually betrayed the whole Grecian empire into the hands of Philip.

Every obstacle being now removed, a general convention of the Amphictyonic states was summoned, in which Philip solicited and obtained the honor, to which he had long

aspired, and which he was now able to demand—the appointment of generalissimo of Greece, in the projected invasion of Persia. Here a new theatre of glory seemed to open before him; an almost boundless prospect was unfolded—when he was suddenly arrested, in the midst of his course, by an invincible adversary. At a public entertainment, given in honor of the nuptials of his daughter Cleopatra, he was assassinated by Pausanias, an obscure Macedonian, whose motives for perpetrating the deed were never developed. This event took place in the forty-seventh year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his reign.]

Philip had been very unhappy in his family; had once, at a public feast, drawn his sword in a rage, and rushed upon his son to kill him. But Alexander, by a quick motion of his body, evaded the blow aimed at his life. It was believed by many that he was privy to the assassination of his father.

Thus fell Philip, in the vigor of his life; his favorite schemes being as yet accomplished but in part. When we view his actions, achievements and character, we can entertain little doubt, that he was the ablest statesman beyond the Augustan age.

B. C.
336.

The Greeks, degenerated from the glory of their ancestors, found their chief resource against the arms and policy of Philip, in the sublime and powerful eloquence of Demosthenes. The muses, partial to this delightful land of their nativity, having long before this done what they could in forming the father of poets, now made their last efforts in forming an orator never to be excelled. But, alas! in vain were the powers of rhetoric displayed. The strongest reasons and the sublimest descriptions, the most solemn warnings, the most animated addresses, were antidotes too feeble to recover a nation forever lost to virtue. They were arms and bulwarks far too weak to resist a powerful conqueror. Yet they often seemed to resuscitate the dying flame of liberty, and co-operating with other impediments to the consummation of Philip's ambition, that prince left his main enterprise to be effected by his son.

[In Demosthenes, eloquence shone forth with higher splendor than, perhaps, in any other that ever bore the name of an orator. His first attempts were unsuccessful. He was heard with hissing, instead of applause. But his strong ambition to excel in the art of speaking prompted him to unwearied perseverance in surmounting all the

disadvantages that arose from his person and address. He often shut himself up in a cave for weeks together, that he might study without interruption. He declaimed by the sea shore, that he might become accustomed to the noise of a tumultuous assembly; and with pebbles in his mouth, for the purpose of correcting a defect in his speech. He also practised at home with a naked sword hanging over him, that he might check an ungraceful method of shrugging his shoulders, to which he was subject. His example is worthy of continual remembrance, and presents a strong encouragement to those, who would excel in any important pursuit.]

A letter from Philip to Aristotle, the Grecian philosopher, announcing the birth of Alexander, his son, is worthy of insertion; "Know, that a son is born to us. We thank the gods, not so much for their gift, as for bestowing it at a time when Aristotle lives. We assure ourselves that you will form him a prince worthy of his father and of Macedonia." When Alexander was thirteen years old, Aristotle commenced this employment, as the young prince was then found able to receive and digest his instructions. "It is impossible to say how far the greatness of the one was owing to the instructions of the other; but it is no more certain that the one conquered the world, than that the other's opinions predominated over men's understandings during sixteen centuries."

[*Bucephalus*.—There was sent from Thessaly to Philip a war-horse, a noble, strong, fiery, generous beast, called *Bucephalus*. The owner would sell him for thirteen talents, about 7436 dollars. The king went into the plains attended by his courtiers, in order to view the perfections of this horse. But, upon trial, he appeared so very fierce, and pranced about in so furious a manner, that no one dared to mount him. Philip, being angry that so furious and unmanageable a creature had been sent him, gave orders for their carrying him back again. Alexander, who was present at that time, cried out, "What a noble horse they are going to lose for want of address and boldness to back him!" Philip, at first, considered these words as the effect of folly and rashness, so common to young men; but as Alexander insisted still more upon what he had said, and was very much vexed to see so noble a creature just going to be sent home again, his father gave him leave to try what he could do. The young prince, overjoyed at this

permission, goes up to Bucephalus, takes hold of the bridle, and turns his head to the sun, having observed, that the thing which frightened him was his own shadow, he seeing it dance about, or sink down, in proportion as he moved. He, therefore, first stroked him gently with his hand, and soothed him with his voice. Then, seeing his mettle abate, and artfully taking his opportunity, he let fall his cloak, and, springing swiftly upon his back, first slackened the rein, without once striking or vexing him; and when he perceived that his fire was cooled, that he was no longer so furious and violent, and wanted only to move forward, he gave him the rein, and, spurring him with great vigor, animated him with his voice to his full speed. While this was doing, Philip and his whole court trembled for fear, and did not once open their lips. But when the prince, after having run his first heat, returned with joy and pride at his having broke a horse which was judged absolutely ungovernable, all the courtiers endeavored to outvie one another in their applauses and congratulations; and we are told, that Philip shed tears of joy on the occasion, and embracing Alexander after he was alighted, and kissing his head, he said to him, "My son, seek a kingdom more worthy of thee; for Macedon is below thy merit."

No one could afterwards mount Bucephalus but Alexander. Long did this noble animal share the toils and dangers of his master; and this was the horse that Alexander delighted to honor. Having disappeared in the country of the Uscii, Alexander issued a proclamation, commanding his horse to be restored; otherwise, that he would ravage the whole country with fire and sword. This command was immediately obeyed. So dear was Bucephalus to Alexander; and so terrible was Alexander to the Barbarians. One of the cities which he founded in India, he named *Bucephalia*.]

Alexander immediately after his father's death ascended his throne; and it was soon perceived, that the administration of the government would lose nothing by the change.

B. C.
336.

His first enterprise was against the barbarous and warlike nations that lay north and west of Macedon. Wherever he turned his face, all opposition vanished before him. On the death of his father, many powerful and independent tribes of Thrace had seized the opportunity, expecting to avail themselves of the inexperience and youth of his son. But Alexander, although he was now, and from the moment of his accession to the throne, preparing for the invasion of

Persia, determined to convince them, that they had nothing to hope from his inexperience, nor to expect from his negligence. At the head of a well appointed army, and with generals whom his father had taught the art of war, he penetrated into Thrace, and was victorious in several sharp encounters. He crossed the Danube, and displayed his triumphant standard on the northern banks of that river. There many neighboring nations, struck with the terror of his arms, sent him their submission in the humblest terms.

But, while he was marching and conquering in the wilds of Europe, a report was spread in Greece, that he had fallen in battle. Whether the belief of this was real or pretended, the perfidious Greeks, though they had just before complimented him by appointing him general of Greece, began now industriously to foment a war with Macedon. Athens, Sparta, and particularly Thebes, were at the head of this attempt. The news of this diversion reached the youthful conqueror as he was ready to return. In eleven days he was seen before Thebes; which ancient and venerable city he had destined to utter destruction. He took it by storm, put the inhabitants to the sword, and levelled it with the ground. Thus ended the city of Cadmus, after having remained one of the heads of Greece 710 years.

The Greeks, struck with dread at the fate of Thebes, sent ambassadors to appease the resentment of Alexander, and to congratulate him on the success of his northern expedition. Never did the character of a nation undergo a greater change, than that of Greece, from the times of Miltiades to those of Alexander. They now were as low as they had been exalted; as feeble as they had been strong; and as mean and base as they had been noble and magnificent. Indeed, so rapid was their declension, that the fortune of Alexander was to them rather a favor than a scourge.

But nothing could exceed the decision and despatch of his counsels, the energy of his preparations, or the rapidity of his motions. He despised all slower counsels, all delays, and even the usual precautions, which commonly retard warlike schemes. His father's ablest generals were astonished at the vigor and success with which he executed the boldest plans. One reason he assigned for invading Persia was, a pretended suspicion, that their emissaries had been concerned in the murder of his father; although

the impartial reader of history cannot avoid a suspicion of a very different nature.

Alexander, having intrusted his domestic concerns (for such now were those of Macedon and Greece) to Antipater, set forward on his Persian expedition, at the head of an army consisting of 5,000 horse and 30,000 foot. In twenty days, he arrived at the Hellespont, where he crossed without opposition into Asia.

With so small an army, says Quintus Curtius, it is doubtful, which is most admirable, the boldness, or the success, of Alexander's vast enterprise. His army was truly a veteran army, consisting of old men, who had fought in the earlier wars of his father and uncle. His soldiers were gray headed, and, when imbodyed, they resembled the venerable senate of some ancient republic. Their dependence was not on the swiftness of their feet, but on the strength of their arms.

The extensive regions of the Persian empire were inhabited by various nations, without any common bond of religion, manners, language, or government. Their capital cities were dissolved in luxury; and their provinces had long been in a state of real dismemberment, for want of any combining system of policy, either civil or military. Murders, treasons and assassinations were the usual steps to the throne; and, when seated there, the monarch's business was little better.

Although the Persians were abundantly forewarned of Alexander's intentions, yet they suffered him to advance into their dominions unmolested either by sea or land. In their confusion and alarm, which every day strengthened by intelligence of the rapid advances of the Greeks, the advice of their ablest counsellors was rejected, either through ignorance or envy. The most skilful generals in the service of Darius urged the utter impolicy of risking a general battle with Alexander, whose impetuous valor, now enhanced by the necessity of conquering, would drive him into the most desperate efforts. It was therefore advised to lay waste the wide country before him, and tame his courage by delays. By this policy, Fabius afterwards checked the progress of Hannibal, and saved Rome.

But the foolish and haughty satraps of Persia rejected this advice with disdain, as unworthy of the dignity of the empire of Cyrus, especially as it came from Memnon, the Rhodian; the only general, however, in the armies of

Darius, whose opposition appeared at all formidable to Alexander. This great man, however, was soon removed by death; and Darius was left to the folly and perfidy of men, who knew no language but that of flattery.

The river Granicus issues from Mount Ida, in the Lesser Phrygia, and falls into the Propontis. On the eastern banks of this river, the Persian commanders assembled their forces with the utmost expedition, and determined to resist the shock of the enemy; and from this place the scouts of Alexander brought him the desired intelligence, that the Persians were assembled in considerable force. As he approached the river, he perceived the Persian army on the opposite bank. Determined on an attack, he immediately made dispositions for crossing the river. His cavalry opened to the right and left, and displayed the formidable Macedonian phalanx of infantry, divided into eight sections. A line was instantly formed.

While these arrangements were making, Parmenio, a general as celebrated for bravery as for caution, remonstrated against crossing the river in such dangerous circumstances. The channel, though fordable, was deep and rough, the current rapid, and the bank steep and rocky. The enemy stood on the opposite bank; and the river must be forded, and the bank ascended, under showers of arrows and darts. But nothing could intimidate Alexander. He leaped upon his horse, assumed the command of the right wing, and gave the left to Parmenio. As he dispersed his orders, a fearful silence ensued, and both armies expected the onset. In a few moments, the Macedonian trumpet was heard from all the line, and the whole was seen entering the river.

As they reached the opposite bank, the shock was dreadful; for the Persians, who fought for life and empire, received them with the most obstinate bravery. Alexander was conspicuous by the brightness of his armor, the terror of his voice, the astonishing celerity of his movements, and the victory and death which attended his arm. He infused his spirit into his army. It was impossible not to be brave where he was. But his intrepidity led him into dangers, which none but himself ever seemed destined to escape. His spear was broken in his hand; his helmet saved his life from the stroke of a battle-axe; and the brave Clitus, whom he afterwards murdered in the fury of passion, saved him at the same instant from the stroke of a cimeter, which must have proved fatal.



Alexander taming Bucephalus.



Massacre of the Roman Senators by the Gauls.

The fortune of the day was nearly decided, before the phalanx of infantry could ascend from the river. Their dreadful aspect, glittering with steel, completed the victory; and the Persians were either killed, taken, or dispersed. Besides that this battle seemed to presage the future fortune of the war, it was ruinous to the cause of Darius, who here lost several of his ablest commanders, with about 20,000 men, while, incredible to relate, Alexander lost only 30 or 40.

The fortune of no conqueror is better known than that of Alexander. His only impediment in the subjugation of the Persians, seemed to be the great extent of their territories, and the distance of their capitals and fortresses. Darius Codomanus displayed little else in the course of this war, which was to put a period to his empire, but weakness, cowardice, the most stupid ignorance, extreme vanity, and a total incapacity either of governing a kingdom, or of commanding an army.

Between the battle of Granicus and that of Issus, where Darius commanded in person, nothing took place worthy of insertion in this compend. In general, the masterly policy of an extensive plan of operations, united safety with despatch, and crowned every movement with success, as much to the glory of the invaders, as the ruin of the invaded.

The defenceless nations of the Lesser Asia, sent their ambassadors in throngs to deprecate the vengeance, implore the mercy, or court the alliance, of the young hero. But he moved from place to place with a celerity, which almost denied access to his faint-hearted, but nimble-footed suppliants.

Parmenio, the next in command to Alexander, was despatched on various excursions, either to receive submissions, or to reduce such strong holds as might dare to stand a siege; but the king of Macedon himself held a more regular line of march, and halted at the great cities. When arrived at ancient Troy, he performed splendid sacrifices and honors at the tomb of Achilles, his great maternal progenitor. It is allowed by all, that he took that hero for his model. So enamored was he of the character and glory of Achilles, that he constantly carried Homer's Iliad in his pocket, and read in it almost every day and hour.

The delays of the Grecian army led Darius to imagine, that fear kept the Greeks at a distance.

To give the young reader a view of the character of the Persian monarch and nation, and generally of the imperial pomp of the ancient Asiatics, we shall here descend to a brief detail of the preparations of Darius, and particularly of the order of the camps and movements, which we translate and abridge, from Quintus Curtius's Life of Alexander. We deem this apparent disproportion allowable, both from having promised it, in our preface, and from the vast importance of the events, to which it leads.

Darius Codomanus may be compared with Louis XVI. of France. If the term *innocent* or *inoffensive* is applicable to an absolute monarch, they were both among the most innocent, inoffensive, or harmless of their respective dynasties. When Darius perceived, at a distance, the gathering storm, rising from Macedon, he sent a splendid and haughty deputation to Alexander, in which he declared himself to be the *king of kings*, and the relation of the gods, and that Alexander was his servant. This commission was given to the satraps of the empire, with orders to seize the *mad boy*, (for so he termed Alexander;) to whip him severely, to clothe him in mock purple, and bring him bound to him; moreover, to sink his ships, in which he had crossed the Hellespont, and to send his army in chains, into exile, to the farther shore of the Red Sea. The Persian lords, intrusted with this gentle office, assembled what they thought a sufficient force, on the banks of the river Granicus, where they intended to execute, to every punctilio, the orders of the monarch of Asia. They found it no easy task to seize the MAD BOY.

The only great military character at this time in the service of Darius, was Memnon, the Rhodian. That experienced soldier comprehended, at once, the nature and consequences of this threatening war; and advised his master to the only expedient, which could have exhausted the impetuous fire of the *mad boy*, so much despised at the Persian court. Memnon's advice, together with its rejection, has been already noticed; as also the result of the affair at the Granicus.

The loss of the battle and so great a part of the army* of Granicus, for the first time, roused the king of Persia from his dreams of security, and opened his eyes on the imperious necessity of decisive measures. Without loss of

* Probably about one tenth part of the Persian army fell in the battle of Granicus.—Ed.

time, he endeavored to wield and concentrate the strength of his empire, on an emergency, which had not occurred since the days of Cyrus.

The regions of Asia have always been populous; and Darius found no difficulty in assembling an army answerable to the dignity of the *king of kings*. He assembled his forces on the plains of Babylon, and determining to command in person, made his dispositions accordingly.

According to an ancient custom of the Persians, he began his march, to meet the enemy, at sunrise, and in the following order. Foremost, went the magi, supporting, on altars of massy silver, what the Persians call the sacred and eternal fire. They began to move at the sound of the trumpet, given from the king's pavilion, at the same time chanting a hymn, suitable to the grand occasion. The magi were followed by three hundred and sixty-five youths, a number equal to the days of the year, veiled in Tyrian purple. A splendid chariot sacred to Jove, followed these, drawn by white horses; and then, a horse of wonderful size, which they called the *steed of the sun*. Behind these, were ten chariots, richly embossed with silver and gold, which were followed by the cavalry of twelve nations, with various arms and ensigns. A corps of 10,000 chosen warriors, arrayed in the most superb style of Eastern magnificence, covered with gold and gems, whom they called the *immortal band*, went next; and they were followed by 15,000 men, denominated the *king's relations*, dressed in a style of the most costly and effeminate luxury. Next to these went a band called the *Doryphori*, dressed in royal apparel; before whom moved the superb and lofty chariot of the king, supported on each hand by divine emblems, emblazed with pearls of inestimable value, and bearing the images of Ninus and Belus,* the founders of the Assyrian empire, with a golden eagle.

The dress of the king was distinguished by every possible mark of the most luxurious wealth, the most gorgeous blaze of gems and gold. Ten thousand spearmen followed his chariot, armed with silver spears, and darts of glittering gold. On his right hand and left, about 200 of his family connexions attended, and were enclosed in a body of

* Nimrod was the founder of Babylon, and Ashur of Nineveh. It is possible, that *Belus* might be another name for *Nimrod*, and *Ninus* for *Ashur*.—*Ed.*

30,000 infantry, the king's body-guards. Behind these, at a short distance, Sisygambis the mother, and Statira the wife, of Darius, rode in separate chariots. A multitude of women; in short, the children and menials and *pellices* of the king, came next, under a strong guard; and the light armed, even a multitude of nations, brought up the rear.

It is said, by our author, that one day, while Darius was viewing this immense army, he turned to Charidemus, a veteran Greek, who had fled his country, from hatred and fear of Alexander, and asked him, whether he did not think, that even the sight of such an army would be sufficient to affrighten Alexander and his handful of Greeks? Charidemus, forgetful of regal pride and vanity, made answer, "This army, so superbly equipped, this huge mass of so many nations, drawn together from all the East, may be terrible to nations like themselves, may shine in purple and gold, may glitter in arms and wealth, so as to dazzle the eye, and exceed conception. But the Macedonian forces, of stern visage and roughly clad, cover the impenetrable strength of their firm battalions with shields and spears. In the solid column of their infantry, which they call the phalanx, man is crowded to man, and arms to arms. They learn to keep rank, and to follow the standard at the slightest signal. Whatever is commanded, they all hear. Nor are the soldiers less skilful than their officers, to halt, to wheel, to form the crescent, to display their wing, or change the order of battle. Think not that they value gold and silver. Virtuous poverty is the mistress of their discipline. When weary, the earth is their bed; by whatever food that comes to hand, they answer the calls of hunger; and their repose is shorter than the night. And can we think, that these Thessalian, Acarnanian and Ætolian horsemen, a band invincible in war, clad in glittering steel, can be vanquished by slings, and spears of wood? No. You need troops *like* them, to contend successfully *with* them. From that land, which gave them birth, auxiliaries must be sought. Would you, therefore, hope to vanquish Alexander, strip off the gold and silver with which your army is adorned and hire soldiers, like his, who can defend your country."

Darius, though naturally of a mild and gentle temper, yet now agitated by fear and jealousy, and of course, become cowardly and cruel, in a rage at remarks so just, and advice so pungent, ordered the unfortunate Charidemus to

be instantly beheaded; and it was accordingly done. Like all other rash and foolish spirits, he perpetrated in haste, an atrocity, which he could not retrieve by lasting and bitter remorse.

The Persian king, soon after, set forward with this vast cavalcade, probably of near a million of souls, in quest of the hardy band of Greeks, who dispersed, captivated, or slew, all who came in their way. How different his army and his whole conduct from those of the great Cyrus, when he marched from the same countries to encounter Cresus, king of Lydia! and how different in the result!

The death of Memnon, the only general of Darius for whose military talents Alexander had the least respect, gave confidence to the Greeks, and struck a deadly damp to the hope and courage of the Persian monarch. Although Memnon's advice had been slighted, merely to gratify the vain-glorious pride of his haughty rivals, yet his loss was felt and deplored; and Darius perceived himself surrounded by the ministers of his pride and folly, from whom he had little to expect, but stupidity, treachery and cowardice.

At the head of this unwieldy mass of people, Darius moved from the plains of Asia, northward, toward the mountains of Syria, in quest of a handful of Greeks, whom still he affected to despise. And well he might have despised them, had he not been a stranger to the art of war, as well as to the proper use of his own resources. An attention to the advice of Charidemus might have saved him. By a little augmentation of his Grecian auxiliaries, he might have easily opposed to Alexander, a number of Greeks equal to the Macedonian army; as he had already in his army, a powerful body of Greeks who constituted his most efficient force. Nothing could have been more gratifying to the Athenians, Lacedemonians, and, indeed, to all the peninsula, than the fall of Alexander, from whose triumphs they expected nothing but chains.

Had they seen a power in the field able to resist the conqueror, or even to protract the war, they would have lent their aid. But the counsellors of Darius were unable to form any regular plan. Inflated with the empty name of the *empire of Cyrus*, from which the spirit and genius of Cyrus had long since departed, they dictated nothing but rashness and folly. They even counselled Darius to put the Grecian troops to the sword, for fear they might prove treacherous, and desert his standard in the day of battle.

In the line of Alexander's march, an entrance into Cilicia was commanded by a pass over a mountain, where a very few men might have stopped the progress of a powerful army. This pass was commanded by Arsames, governor of Cilicia. Instead of defending it, on the approach of Alexander, the dastardly Persians fled, before the Greeks came in sight.

Alexander, when he gained the height, expressed astonishment at his good fortune; nor could he but perceive, that such an advantage, so readily abandoned by the Persians, gave a sure indication of his future success. Yet, in passing these mountains, he kept continually before his army, bands of light armed Thracians, who might secure him from ambuscade and surprise.

Tarsus, afterward the birthplace of the apostle Paul, a principal city of Cilicia, had been set on fire by the Persians, in order to plunder it; but the city was saved by the timely arrival of Parmenio. The ablest counsellors of Darius urged him to return to the extensive plains of Mesopotamia, where his innumerable forces might act to advantage; or at least, that his army should be divided, and led on to encounter the Greeks at different times and places.

Darius was especially induced to reject this salutary advice, by intelligence that Alexander was dangerously sick. He therefore hastened his march, and came up with Alexander, at the bay of Issus. Yet when it was ascertained, that the Macedonian army was near and approaching, Darius was greatly surprised and disappointed. He had entertained a vain confidence, that the Greeks would retire at his approach, and not dare to hazard a battle with an army like his. Indeed, had he possessed the talents of Alexander, the army of the latter would not have sufficed his innumerable host for handfuls.

Darius gave the command of his right wing to Nabarzanes, to which he added light troops, composed of slingers and archers, to the amount of 20,000. In the centre of this wing, Thymodes was placed at the head of 20,000 Greeks, a power of itself sufficient to cope with the Macedonian phalanx. It was, indeed, the flower and strength of his army. The left wing was commanded by Aristodemus, a Thessalian, with 20,000 infantry. To these he added the most warlike bands of the allied nations. In this wing the king himself fought, with 3000 chosen cavalry, his body guards sustained by 40,000 infantry. Near these, were

ranged the Hyrcanian and Median horse, a powerful body of cavalry; and, finally, many thousands of auxiliary forces. In front of this array, six thousand slingers and archers moved forward to commence the battle.

The place for the battle was most unfortunate for Darius. A narrow, irregular plain, limited on one side by the sea, and on the others by mountains and declivities, enabled Alexander to display as wide a front as Darius, and gave a peculiar advantage to the Greeks, accustomed to manœuvre among hills and mountains.

Alexander drew up his powerful phalanx in front. The command of his right wing he gave to Nicanor, the son of Parmenio. Next to him stood Cœnos, Perdiccas, Ptolemy, Meleager and Amyntas; each one destined to a particular command. The left wing, which extended to the sea shore, was commanded by Parmenio, with Craterus, subject to his orders. The cavalry were ranged on each wing; the Macedonian and Thessalian on the right, and the Peloponnesian on the left; and before all, as was usual, light armed troops, archers and slingers were stationed.

When the armies now stood in open view of each other, Alexander passed before the front of his formidable line, addressing his officers and soldiers man by man. He encouraged them to the contest, from motives of safety, interest and glory. He reminded them of a series of victories gained, when victory was far less necessary, but never when it would be more glorious.

The conflict for a while was severe and dreadful. Darius did every thing he could to sustain his falling throne. Indeed, the Greeks in his army fought with great bravery, and in discipline were little inferior to the Macedonians. Had their numbers been equal, they might have influenced the fortune of the day. But an immense rout and confusion soon took place in the Persian army; and when the Greeks saw themselves contending alone against a superior force, such as were not slain either surrendered, or fled in despair. Darius soon perceiving all was lost, with some difficulty effected his escape.

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In the camp of Darius was found considerable treasure; but what was most inestimable to Alexander was, the family of the unfortunate Darius. Among other royal personages, were taken Sisymbria, the mother of Darius, his children, and his queen, the beautiful and celebrated Statira, considered as one of the finest women of antiquity. The

ardent and youthful conqueror, on this occasion, displayed the highest sensibility and honor of a soldier and a hero. And his behavior to those noble captives may be compared with that of the great Cyrus before, and of Scipio afterward, on occasions nearly similar. He treated them with the respect and deference due to the elevated rank of their more fortunate days; and strove by commiseration, pity and tenderness, to mitigate the severities of their hard fortune. Indeed, his heart, subdued by the resistless charms of virtue, innocence and beauty, of a conqueror made him a captive in his turn. He afterwards married Statira,* and made her a second time queen, not of Persia only, but of Asia, Africa and Europe. Her second elevation, however, was soon terminated by a destiny more severe and dreadful. On the death of Alexander, she fell a sacrifice to the cruelty and ambition of those blood-thirsty harpies, whose first care was to exterminate the family of Alexander.

In a former chapter, we have spoken of the siege of Tyre by Nebuchadnezzar. The taking of that celebrated city by Alexander was not one of his least brilliant exploits. Although conquered and humbled by the Assyrians, that queen of commercial cities had regained her former splendor, and had forgotten her ancient fall and degradation. The Tyrians, having sent ambassadors to Alexander, desired to know his pleasure, and declared their submission to his will. But when they were informed, that he intended paying them a visit, they, with equal modesty and firmness, sent him word, that although they were disposed to do homage to his will, yet, as they were an independent state, they could neither admit him nor the Persians to make their city a part in the war. This was enough for that ambitious conqueror. He instantly determined to try their strength. Tyre was probably the strongest city in Western Asia.

This great city was separated from the shore by a narrow strait of half a mile in width. Its walls were a hundred feet in height, and eighteen miles in circuit. Its provisions and naval and military stores were very great. As Alexander had little hope of taking the city but by land, he constructed a mole across the frith. This was done with vast

* The Statira whom Alexander married, was probably the daughter of Darius, and not his queen; though *her* name also was Statira. *Ed.*

labor and danger to the Greeks; and was no sooner done, than burnt by the Tyrians. In this inveterate siege, which lasted seven months, every expedient of force and art was employed on both sides; and it may be safely said, that no city was ever attacked with greater vigor, or defended with more resolute bravery. But what could resist the genius of Alexander? The city at length was taken, and so far destroyed as never again to recover its former splendor. The subjection of Phœnicia followed the reduction of Tyre; and, if we except the brave resistance of the fortress of Gaza, Alexander met with little more resistance, till he arrived in Egypt. There he laid the foundations of a city, which was to bear his name. Alexandria, in twenty years, became one of the principal cities of the East.

The unhappy Darius was unable to repel foreign invasion. His hand was never formed to hold with steadiness, strength and dignity, the reins of empire.

Escaped from the battle of Issus, he hastened back to the seat of his empire; and, as soon as possible, and with no great difficulty, assembled a numerous army. Could the spirit and genius of the great Cyrus, have actuated him for but a few months, the declining fortune of his kingdom would have assumed a different aspect.

We can say little more in this place, than that the Macedonian conqueror subdued Egypt* and Persia, and even

* The battle of Gaugamela and the fate of Darius appear to be deserving of notice, even in a compend.

After Alexander had conquered Egypt, he returned to Phœnicia, He spent some time at Tyre to settle his affairs in that region. In the mean time, the king of Persia had three times solicited peace of Alexander; but in vain. Alexander would not listen to any overtures for peace, but upon condition, that Darius would yield him the whole empire. This, Darius was unwilling to do. He therefore applied himself to make preparations for another battle. Accordingly, he collected at Babylon, a vast army of more than half a million soldiers, and taking the field, he marched toward Nineveh. Alexander had already taken the field with an army of about fifty thousand, and having passed the Euphrates at Thapsacus, was in quest of the enemy, whom he had the happiness to find beyond the Tigris, at a small village called Gaugamela, not many miles from Nineveh. At this village, a tremendous battle was fought, in which forty thousand Persians were slain, and only five hundred Macedonians. This battle was decisive against the Persians. It decided the fate of Darius, and transferred the empire to Alexander. This battle is generally called the battle of Arbela;

penetrated far into India. His conquests comprehended the most enlightened parts of Europe and Asia, and the fairest portion of the habitable globe. After his return from the East, his attention was directed to the establishment of order and regular government throughout his extensive empire. In matters of this nature, he showed no less capacity, than he had done at the head of his armies. But here his designs were never carried into effect. While planning the future prosperity of his empire—while receiving embassies from all quarters of Europe and Asia, and even before he had time to realize to what an elevated height of honor, glory and dominion he had arisen, he was seized with a raging fever at Babylon, which terminated his life in the 33d year of his age, and the 13th of his reign.

How sudden and how awful the change from the summit of earthly glory to the dreary and silent tomb! No conqueror was ever more fortunate than he; no hero more brave; no monarch more splendid. For thirteen years, his life was a rapid series of successes, victories, conquests and triumphs. But death in an unexpected, untimely hour, closed the scene.

Alexander was said to be of low stature, and not well formed; yet in genius, vigor, activity and elevation of

because Arbela was the nearest town of any considerable note, being about twelve miles distant from Gaugamela. The battle of Gaugamela was fought in Oct. 331 years B. C. and almost exactly two years after the battle of Issus. After his defeat at Gaugamela, the wretched Darius fled to Ecbatana in Media, where he was suffered to remain unmolested till the ensuing spring. In the mean time, Alexander, having settled his affairs in Persia, and burnt Persepolis, the ancient capital, pursued after Darius. Upon intelligence of this, Darius exerted his utmost efforts to make his escape. While with the little army, which he had collected, he was flying before Alexander's, his protectors became his enemies. By two traitors, Bessus, governor of Bactria, and Naborzanes, another noble Persian, he was cruelly seized, bound, confined in a close carriage, and in this manner carried for several days. When Alexander drew near, Darius was most inhumanly stabbed in several places, and left weltering in his blood. He soon expired, and Alexander, arriving immediately after, wept to behold the horrid spectacle. Casting his cloak over the mangled body, he commanded, that, being wrapped in this, it should be sent to the near relatives of Darius, at Susa; though, being murdered in Bactria, the distance was probably 1000 miles. To that city, the royal corpse was sent, where it was honored with a magnificent funeral by the order and at the expense of Alexander.—*Ed.*

mind, he was probably never excelled. His father, whose administration, Dr. Gillies justly observes, was the first, of which we have a regular account in history, certainly was one of the greatest of men and of princes; yet for boldness, decision, rapidity and grandeur of mind, he cannot be compared with his son. To judge of the justness of the grounds of Alexander's leading enterprises, would be unsafe at this distance of time. He certainly had many provocations to invade Greece and Persia. He was guilty of outrageous acts of barbarity, when provocations arose, during his paroxysms of wine and passion; which certainly occurred so often, as to throw a shade over his general character. But if those acts impaired the lustre of his fame, they no less destroyed his happiness; for they were generally followed by the keenest remorse and self-condemnation.

His burning the palace of Persepolis, at the instigation of Thais, if the story deserves full credit, though pretended as a retaliation upon Xerxes for burning Athens, admits of no apology; while, on the other hand, the death of Clitus, as related by great authorities, has many palliations. Clitus had loaded Alexander with the most abusive and reiterated insults. They were both in the heat of wine and passion; and the monarch, after being insulted for some time, ordered Clitus to be carried out of his presence. Clitus after this came back and renewed the attack. Upon this the king stabbed him; but was so instantly struck with remorse, that he would have killed himself with the same weapon, had he not been restrained by the company present.

If, according to Cicero, the knowledge of war, personal authority, bravery and good fortune, are essential to the character of the great commander, it can scarcely be doubted, that Alexander was second to none. Hannibal seemed wanting only in the last article. He had great skill, bravery and authority. His misfortune was, that his countrymen were corrupt, and the government, under which he acted, extremely bad.

Had Alexander enjoyed a long reign, he would probably have introduced a form of government, adapted to the nature and extent of the countries he had conquered. But before these salutary objects could be accomplished, even before he had organized a combining system of policy, or determined on a successor, he was called from the great theatre of human life, on which, while he remained, no mortal ever made a greater figure.

CHAPTER X.

MACEDON.

ALEXANDER'S EMPIRE, FROM HIS DEATH TILL ITS SUBJUGATION
BY THE ROMANS.

THE death of Alexander, which took place 323 years before Christ, occasioned changes and wars in all parts of his extensive conquests. His dominions were divided among four of his great officers, viz. Cassander, Lysimachus, Ptolemy and Seleucus. Cassander shared Macedon and Greece—Lysimachus, Thrace and the countries bordering on the Hellespont and Bosphorus—Ptolemy had Egypt, Lybia, Arabia, Syria and Palestine; and Seleucus had Chaldaea, Persia and the East.*

The century succeeding the death of Alexander, forms, perhaps, the most uninteresting period of ancient history. The successors of the great conqueror were ambitious without abilities; and, instead of power and policy, they displayed little else but treachery, perfidy and cruelty. The whole empire was agitated by vain struggles, wars ill-conducted, and conspiracies remarkable for nothing but weakness, folly and barbarity. Such scenes were exhibited in Babylon; such, in Persia; such, in Macedon; and such, in Greece. The nations east of Persia soon returned to their former state; and felt the shock of Alexander's conquest, only as a wave separated for a moment by the course of the ship, that passes through it. Indeed, Persia itself had little to perpetuate the memory of that event, except what indelible marks the course of war had left in the destruction of several of her noblest cities and greatest families.

Alexander had united himself to the royal family of Darius, by marriage. Of course that family, as soon as he was dead, fell a prey to the merciless rage of jealousy and ambition; not even excepting his beautiful queen Statira, as already noticed. So that his posterity shared none of his glory, or good fortune.

Babylon and its vicinity felt longer and more deeply the effects of this conquest; only, however, to complete its ruin and extinction, by the building of Seleucia on the banks of

*This division did not take place till after the lapse of several years, peculiarly marked with wars, and crimsoned with blood.—*Ed.*

the Tigris. The states of Greece held on their course of degradation, rapidly declining from their former glory, till, together with their liberty, virtue, public spirit and genius, their prosperity, happiness and national existence departed. But in Macedon, Syria and Egypt, there arose establishments, which make some figure in history.

It has been already noticed, that, in the division of the empire, Cassander, one of Alexander's generals, shared Macedon and Greece. This man had little more talents, than were sufficient to enable him to perpetrate the blackest crimes and the most atrocious villanies. He seems to have been designed as the instrument of Providence for the destruction of Alexander's family. He is even suspected, and that upon probable grounds, of having poisoned Alexander himself. After he had reigned in Macedon nearly twenty years, and, with cruel ingratitude, imbrued his hands in the blood of the children and friends of his benefactor, and had experienced various fortune in the wars, which his competitors were carrying on, he died, and left three sons to contest for his kingdom. After various murders and the most horrid parricide, the sons of Cassander, whose mother Thessalonice was the sister of Alexander the Great, were destroyed, and the kingdom fell into the hands of Demetrius, another of the competitors for the empire, who reigned seven years. And it is remarkable, that this revolution completed the extirpation of the family of Philip, king of Macedon.

Sosthenes a Macedonian succeeded Demetrius. But his reign was short; and Antigonus was elevated to the throne, in the year 276 before the Christian era. The kings of Egypt and Syria acknowledging the right of Antigonus to the kingdom of Macedon, it remained in his family for several successive reigns, till Perseus, the last of that race, was conquered by Paulus Emilius, the Roman consul, and Macedon became a province of the Roman empire, about a century before Christ.

To speak particularly of the characters and exploits of those princes, in a work of this nature, would afford as little pleasure as profit to the reader; who, from the specimens given, may form some judgment of the rest. Indeed, it is a period of history but little known; and what is known of it, is extremely disgusting.

Before we proceed to the kingdoms of Syria and Egypt, it will be proper to observe, however, that this period is

adorned with one great character. Pyrrhus was the lineal descendant of Achilles, the famous leader of the Myrmidons in the Trojan war. Being very early in life forced to abandon Epirus, his paternal inheritance, to Neoptolemus, a usurper, he followed the standard of some of the competitors, who fought for Alexander's empire, till, at length, he was delivered over to Ptolemy Soter, king of Egypt, as a hostage. His bravery and good conduct soon gained him the affection of that monarch, who rewarded his merits with the hand of Antigone in marriage, the daughter of Berenice, his favorite queen; and furnished him with an army to attempt the recovery of his kingdom. This illustrious prince soon appreciated the value of these advantages, by the complete recovery of all his dominions. His course was marked with a series of great and noble actions. In Asia, he met no equal; and wherever he turned his arms, victory attended him. His elevation took place about 297 years before Christ.

Pyrrhus, however, was unable to resist the rising fortune of Rome. Unhappily for him, he entered Italy, where he was repulsed by a nation of heroes, who united the bravery of Leonidas to the uncorrupted virtues of Aristides. Had Pyrrhus made Greece and Asia the scene of his operations, he might either have avoided a collision with the Romans, or, at least, might for a while have checked their growing power. It is thought by some, that had Alexander himself entered Italy, he would have met the fate of Pyrrhus. But Pyrrhus experienced the fortune of war. He is allowed by all historians to have been the greatest commander of his time, and by some, to have been second to none but Alexander. His invasion of Italy will be noticed in our view of the Roman history.

From Macedon, let us proceed to notice the kingdom of Syria. This country lies at the east end or head of the Mediterranean, but separated from it by what was anciently called Phœnicia, a narrow strip of land, which lies along the eastern shores of that sea, the chief cities of which were Tyre and Sidon. North of Syria lay Cappadocia and some other provinces; east, lay Mesopotamia; and south, Arabia and the deserts. Syria was also divided into Upper and Lower; a distinction which will be of little use in this compend.

Thirteen years after the death of Alexander the Great, and before Christ 312, Seleucus, after various revolutions,

found himself able to establish his authority in Syria, over which he reigned for 33 years. He was perpetually engaged in the competitions and inglorious wars of his time, without performing any thing particularly worthy of notice.* It has been already remarked that Chaldea, Persia, and the East fell to him, in the division of the empire. In those immense provinces, to govern which required the genius of Cyrus or Alexander, Seleucus was not wholly inactive. He endeavored to complete the conquest of those countries, and even invaded India, but with little effect. Instead of continuing in the purpose of Alexander, to make Babylon the seat of his empire, he built the city of Seleucia, upon the Tigris, about forty miles from Babylon; which already accelerated the decline of the latter, now dismantled to adorn and replenish the new city. Its final abandonment soon took place.

Either by accident or design, the city of Seleucia obtained the name of New Babylon, which name having not always been distinguished from that of the old city, abundance of confusion has been introduced into ancient history, and many historians have been led very erroneously to affirm, that ancient Babylon stood on the river Tigris.

Seleucus, having reigned 33 years, was treacherously murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, or the Thunderer, as he seems foolishly to have been surnamed; who thereby, for a short time, obtained the government of Macedon. But he was vanquished and slain by the Gauls—a fate he justly merited.

Seleucus was succeeded in his throne and dominions by his son Antiochus, who made Antioch the seat of his empire. This city was for many ages, says Dr. Prideaux, the Queen of the East. It was built by Seleucus, and stood on the river Orontes, in Upper Syria. The Syrian kings reigned here; and here afterwards, the Roman governors resided; and after the introduction of Christianity, it long remained

* This is by no means doing justice to the builder of Seleucia, and the father of the Seleucidæ. The following character of Seleucus, is from the respected pen of Gillies. "The designs, as well as actions, ascribed to him, confirm his character in history, as an indefatigable and just prince, a firm friend, an affectionate father, an indulgent master; who gained the love of his Eastern subjects, by governing them according to their inveterate principles and habits; and who, among all contemporary sovereigns, was pre-eminent in all consistent greatness of conduct, flowing from true royalty of soul." See *Hist. World*, Vol. I. p. 482,—*Ed.*

a famous archiepiscopal see. The most considerable enterprise in the life of this prince, was his expelling the Gauls out of Lesser Asia. We have already noticed their invasion of Greece, whence they were driven by Sosthenes. They had now invaded, and in a great measure overrun, all Lesser Asia, and threatened to subdue the whole Assyrian empire. Antiochus defeated and cut them off so completely, as to deliver his territories from their incursions.* He was thence surnamed Soter, or Savior.

Not far from this period, the fame of the Roman arms, and the fortune of that wondrous people, were confirmed in the defeat and downfall of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus.

As the succeeding reigns of the Syrian kings would furnish little, either for the instruction or amusement of the reader, we shall content ourselves with little more than a mere enumeration of them. Antiochus Soter, after a reign of 15 years, was murdered by his wife Laodice, and was succeeded by Seleucus Callinicus. This prince reigned 20 years; was perpetually engaged in war, and ended his life in Parthia, by a fall from his horse. He was succeeded by his son Seleucus Ceraunus, or the Thunderer; who, after a reign of three years, was poisoned by his courtiers. The *Saviors* and *Thunderers* of that pusillanimous race of kings, with all their thunder against their enemies, and salvation for their subjects and dominions, did little but waste their time and strength in vain enterprises, poorly planned and still worse executed; and thus prepared them to become an easy prey to the Romans.

Ceraunus was succeeded by his brother Antiochus, surnamed the *Great*: and, indeed, if a great deal of noise and bustle; many expeditions; getting some considerable
 B. C. 222. victories, (which, however, he did not know how to improve,) and despising some advantages, which might have turned to his account; in short, if fighting hard, and getting often defeated, and at last overthrown with irrecoverable disgrace and ruin—if all this merited for him the title *Great*, surely no one ever earned it more completely.

We shall notice particularly but a few things in the reign of this prince; neither of which very well comport with his being styled the Great. The first is his war with Arsaces, king of the Parthians, or Persians. This enterprising and warlike prince restored, in some measure, the

* Multitudes of the Gauls still remained, and settled in Galatia; on account of whom this extensive region was so denominated.—*Ed.*

ancient government of Persia, which the Romans never fully subjugated. Antiochus had a long war with him, and gained some advantages; but could never conquer him.

The second thing we shall notice concerning Antiochus, is his rejecting the advice of Hannibal, the Carthaginian general, and thereby failing of the aid of that great and warlike genius. The fall of Carthage being now foreseen by Hannibal, he saw no power either in Europe or Asia, to whom he could apply for aid, or with whom he might unite his endeavors against the Romans, except the king of Syria. To him, therefore, he went, and tendered his assistance and advice. The substance of Hannibal's advice to Antiochus was, that he should make war upon the Romans, whose power had now become formidable to all nations; that they should immediately be invaded in the most vigorous manner both by sea and land; and that Italy itself should be the seat of war. This advice was no less timely and important than it was judicious and practicable; and a conformity to it was of equal moment both to the giver and receiver. But the Syrian king, whose views and conceptions wanted that extent and vigor necessary to raise him to a level with Hannibal, and actuated by a mean jealousy, lest the superior talents of the latter should eclipse his own, pursued a quite different course. Antiochus invaded Greece, was met by the Roman armies, was defeated by sea and land, and that, on the side of the Romans, almost without the loss of blood. With the loss of great part of his dominions, he was compelled to pay an enormous tribute, and to accept of the most disgraceful terms of peace; and Lucius Scipio, the Roman general, acquired the surname of *Asiaticus*, in honor to him, as the conqueror of Asia.

Sometime after this, Antiochus was killed in robbing the temple of Elymais, dedicated to Jupiter Belus, having reigned 36 years.

The history of Syria, from this period, is virtually but the history of a Roman province, although it bore the form and semblance of monarchy for 122 years. Seleucus Philopater next ascended the Syrian throne; on which he maintained a dubious authority for 11 years. After him, the succession took place in the following order, Antiochus Epiphanes, 11 years; Antiochus Eupator, 2 years; Demetrius Soter, 12 years; Alexander Balas, 5 years; Demetrius Nicanor, 5 years; Antiochus Sidetes, 10 years; Demetrius Nicanor, 11 years; Zebina, 2 years; Antiochus Grypus, 27

years. During the last mentioned reign, and 114 years before Christ, Antiochus Cyzicenus established a new kingdom at Damascus, which remained independent of Syria for 30 years.

Seleucus succeeded Antiochus Grypus, and reigned 4 years; after him, Philip, 9 years, in whom ended the Seleucidæ, or the family of Seleucus, after having swayed the sceptre of Syria 229 years. This was in the year 83, before the Christian era. If poisons, assassinations, conspiracies, treasons; if murder of fathers, mothers, brothers, sisters and children; if the violation of every law of nature, reason, and justice, was ever the peculiar characteristic of any dynasty of monarchs, it surely belonged to this. The Syrians at length expelled and excluded the Seleucidæ from the government, and elected Tigranes, king of Armenia, to be their king. Under Tigranes, the royal dignity of Syria became extinct, and that country was made a Roman province by Pompey; of whom we shall speak in our view of the Roman history. Syria became a province of Rome 65 years before Christ.

With a brief survey of the history of Egypt, from the death of Alexander, till the subjection of that country to the Romans, we shall close our view of Alexander's empire. If any of the princes of those times deserved the name of *Soter* or *Savior*, the first Ptolemy must have been the man; since he is allowed, by all ancient writers, to have been a prince of great wisdom and virtue. In the division of Alexander's conquests, it has already been remarked, that Egypt fell to Ptolemy. After a war with the rival princes for several years, he found himself firmly settled in the government of Egypt; and his reign commenced in the year before Christ, 304—eight years after that of Seleucus in Syria. To detail the particular wars between Egypt and Syria, (for they were almost incessant,) would not consist with the brevity of this work. It shall suffice to say, that the kings of Egypt held a respectable ascendancy among the successors of Alexander. They generally reigned with more dignity, and certainly preserved their independence longer than either those of Syria or Macedon.

Ptolemy Soter, having reigned 20 years from the time of his assuming the title of king, and 39 from the death of Alexander, being above 80 years old, resigned his kingdom to Philadelphus his son, a prince famous for his exertions to promote learning, and for the encouragement

he gave to learned men. The celebrated Alexandrian library had been begun by his father, who was himself both a scholar and philosopher. It was kept in the temple of Serapis, reckoned one of the finest and noblest edifices of antiquity.

This library consisted of two parts; one of which, containing 300,000 volumes, was kept in a quarter of the city called Bruchium; the other part, consisting of 200,000 volumes, was kept in the Serapeum, or temple of Serapis. The library of Bruchium, only, was burnt by Julius Cesar. Yet in after times, as we have before stated, all was lost.

This important library or museum drew together the most learned society in the world, and raised Egypt once more, and probably for the last time, to be the august patroness of science. The presidents of this museum were the first counsellors of state to the kings of Egypt; and the first president, appointed by Ptolemy Philadelphus, was Demetrius Phalereus, a Greek who had been for several years governor of Athens—a man of great learning and abilities.*

It is remarkable, that the dynasty of Ptolemies, from the accession of Ptolemy Soter, till the end of the reign of Cleopatra, lasted 294 years; the whole of which period comprehended only eleven reigns, and that almost in an unbroken succession. Those princes must have reigned, on an average, about 27 years. The shortest reign of them all was 13 years. Several of them reached nearly 40 years.

They stand in the following order, Ptolemy Soter, 39 years; Philadelphus, 38; Euergetes, 25; Philopater, 17; Epiphanes, 24; Philometer; 35; Physcon, his brother, 29; Lathyrus, 36; Alexander, in the right of his wife, 15; Auletes, 13; Cleopatra, 22 years. The Hebrew monarchs, from Saul to Jehoiakim, reigned, on an average, 24 years each; the Persian, from Cyrus to Codomanus, 18 years; the Roman, from Augustus to Constantine XII. emperor of Constantinople, 12 years; the English, from William the Conqueror to George II. 22 years.

If long reigns and regular successions may be regarded as evidences of the wisdom, good fortune, and mild administration of the prince, and of the contentment, tranquillity and equanimity of the public mind, the Ptolemies may be reckoned among the most happy and fortunate of the monarchs of antiquity.

* Great indeed he must have been, since Cornelius Nepos says, that the Athenian senate erected 300 statues to perpetuate his memory.

Without noticing particularly the several reigns in this period of history, we shall close it with a few general observations.

An event took place about this time, which perhaps serves, above all others of a historical nature, to demonstrate the very high antiquity and great authority of the scriptures of the Old Testament. We have already spoken of Demetrius Phalereus, who was the greatest scholar and philosopher of his time. Plutarch informs us, that this Demetrius advised Ptolemy Soter to make the largest collection he could, of books, which treated of the government of states and kingdoms, as he would thereby obtain the advice and experience of wise men in former ages. Soter accordingly engaged in the work; but it was more fully accomplished by Philadelphus. Among many other histories and codes of laws, they obtained from the high priest of Jerusalem, an exact copy of the sacred writings, together with seventy-two learned Jews, who were deeply skilled in the Greek language, to translate them. These persons proceeded into Egypt, and under the inspection of Demetrius Phalereus, accomplished that celebrated translation. This was done in the eighth year of the reign of Ptolemy Philadelphus. The concurrent testimonies of many ancient authors establish, beyond all possible doubt, the certainty of this transaction; and of course, they also establish other things, (*viz.*) that the writings of the Old Testament existed in the days of Ptolemy Philadelphus; and that their credit and authority were then great and unquestionable. There is indeed a doubt, whether the true Septuagint translation is now extant. According to Epiphanius, it was burned in the Alexandrian library of Bruchium, by Julius Cæsar. But on the contrary, Tertullian affirms it to have been kept in the Serapeum, and of course, that it escaped that conflagration.

From the death of Alexander, to the conquest of all his dominions by the Romans, the belligerent powers of the known world may be divided into four parts, forming two grand theatres of war. The first, and by far the grandest scene was made up of the Romans and Carthaginians and their several allies; the second was composed of the powers we have been considering in this chapter, namely, the Macedonians, Syrians and Egyptians. The latter had ambition enough, but with little power or policy; the former were ambitious of empire, and were nearly on a footing as to the necessary means of gaining it. For it is

justly remarked by an able historian, that the genius of war forsook the Greeks at the death of Alexander, and went over to the Carthaginians.

Alexander's conquest must, on the whole, be regarded as a benefit to the world. Had the Persians conquered Greece, or the Carthaginians Rome, an age of darkness must have ensued, through which the wing of conjecture is unable to explore its flight. Those nations, under which Rome ultimately fell, although rough and savage, yet had great vigor, both of body and mind. The world has, therefore, once more risen to the light of science, reason and civility. But the oppressive tyranny of southern climates threatens to extinguish reason and virtue, and overwhelm men in everlasting darkness. The conquests of the Greeks left no nation worse than they found them. It certainly left many nations better. Even Greece itself found an enemy in Alexander less dangerous than in Pericles. An artful demagogue of great talents is the most dangerous man the world ever saw, and is the greatest curse to any form of government that ever befell it. Alexander found the Persians at their lowest ebb. Had he not conquered them, they would soon have conquered themselves. Indeed, they had done it already; and were falling into ruin by the natural progress of internal debility. The Egyptians were regenerated by his conquest; and were never more flourishing, respectable, enlightened or happy, than under the Grecian dynasty.

Grecian literature generally travelled with their arms, and planted itself with their colonies; and before the Augustan age had diffused itself through most parts of Europe and Asia; and if the military spirit of the Greeks rested on the Carthaginians, their love of the arts and sciences surely did no less on the Romans.

[Greece, from the death of Alexander to the Roman conquest.

The tidings of Alexander's death spread rapidly through the principal cities of Greece, and called forth the most rapturous demonstrations of joy. The event was hailed by all the Greeks, but especially by the sanguine Athenians, as the harbinger of liberty. The orators sounded the alarm of war in the public assemblies, and many of the enslaved republics promptly replied to the summons by rushing to arms. A confederation was quickly formed against Antipater, Alexander's successor in Macedon, and an army raised, the command of which was given to

B. C.
146.

Leosthenes. He gained considerable advantages over the Macedonian army, and even obliged Antipater to surrender at discretion. But the success of the allied Greeks proved transient. Antipater raised a second army, with which he defeated them, and took possession of their cities, after dictating the terms of surrender. The resentment of the conqueror was chiefly directed against the orators, whom he considered the principal authors of the revolt. Most of these he destroyed by force or fraud, among whom was the celebrated Demosthenes. The following are some of the circumstances of his death. When Antipater obtained possession of Athens, the orator fled to the island of Calauria, near Trezen, and took refuge in the temple of Neptune. Thither his enemies pursued him. But fearing to violate a sanctuary, they employed every art of persuasion, to induce him to come forth and surrender. Fully persuaded, that he had nothing to hope from the clemency of Antipater, he withdrew into the interior of the temple, and under the pretence of writing to his family, put a poisoned quill into his mouth, which, in a few moments, terminated his mortal existence, and disappointed the meditated vengeance of his enemies.

Amidst all the violence of contending parties, and the frequent change of governors in Athens, **PHOCION** had long remained tranquil and secure. His prudence, wisdom, moderation and unaffected humility, rendered him equally beloved and feared by his fellow citizens. He had been ever ready to obey the call of his country, when his services were claimed, and as ready to retire into a state of honorable poverty, when those services were no longer demanded. Forty-five times was he elected general of the Athenian armies, by the unsolicited and unanimous votes of a capricious people; and, on every occasion, proved himself worthy of the confidence reposed in him. This virtuous Athenian was so much respected by Philip, Alexander and Antipater, that they sought his friendship, yielded, in almost every instance, to his solicitation, and constantly afforded him protection. But when Antipater was called from Greece, to undertake the regency of Macedon, and Polysperchon arrived as his successor, the deluded citizens were induced by their new master to accuse, condemn and execute the virtuous Phocion, who had now attained the eightieth year of his age. The meekness and serenity of

his death, crowned the probity and usefulness of his life. His dying instructions to a friend, who inquired, what message he should deliver to his son, were, "Tell him, it is my last command, that he forget the injustice of the Athenians to his father." He was distinguished for his steady opposition to the counsels of Demosthenes, at the time when that orator would have stirred up the Athenians to oppose the power of Philip; and it arose from a principle, which proved his extensive knowledge of the real condition of the rival states at that period. "Since the Athenians," said he, "are no longer able to fill their wonted and glorious sphere, let them adopt counsels suited to their abilities; and endeavor to court the friendship of a power, which they cannot provoke, but to their ruin."

Polysperchon was soon afterward expelled from Athens by Cassander, son of Antipater, who appointed Demetrius Phalereus governor of the city, and commander of the garrison. He was not the tyrant, but the benefactor of Athens, increased its revenues, revived its commerce, patronised its literature, and adorned it with magnificent structures. During the ten years of his government, Athens enjoyed perfect tranquillity, and the citizens expressed their gratitude by erecting numerous statues in honor of his public services. But this tranquillity was interrupted by Antigonus, one of Alexander's most enterprising generals, and his son Demetrius, surnamed *Poliocertes*, or the stormer of cities. They took the city by surprise, and under pretence of restoring to its inhabitants their ancient laws and government, prevailed on them to desert the standard of their former governor, and oblige him to withdraw from the place. The fickle Athenians found no difficulty in transferring their allegiance from Demetrius Phalereus, to a most depraved and licentious youth, bearing indeed his name, but an entire stranger to his virtues. The exiled Demetrius, in the mean time, spent his days in literary retirement, at the liberal court of Ptolemy Soter, king of Egypt, till he was seized and put to death by one of his successors.

Soon after this period, Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, began to make a conspicuous figure in Asia, Italy and Greece. His whole reign was a series of wars, first with the neighboring princes of Macedon, from whom he wrested that empire, then, with the Romans, and finally, with the Greeks, whom he repeatedly attempted, in vain, to subjugate.

Amid all the revolutions of Greece, Sparta had retained the shadow of independence. She was still governed by her own kings and senate; and had not yet submitted to the humiliation of receiving a Macedonian garrison within her walls. But Pyrrhus formed the design of annexing the Peloponnesus to his dominions. He led a large army into Laconia, and, having borne down all opposition, encamped before the capital. The council proposed, in so dangerous an emergency, to send off the women to some place of safety; but Archidamia, delegated by the Spartan ladies, entered the senate house, with a sword in her hand, and thus addressed them: "Think not, O men of Sparta, so meanly of your countrywomen, as to imagine, that they will survive the ruin of the state. Deliberate not, then, whither we are to *fly*, but *what we are to do*." In consequence of this animating address, it was resolved, that, during the night, the women should assist in digging a trench round the city, which proved the means of preserving it from destruction. Three desperate attempts were made by the whole army of Pyrrhus, to force this intrenchment; but so boldly was it defended by the Spartans, who were prompted to deeds of valor by the presence of their wives and mothers, that the king of Epirus found it necessary to retire. His next attempt was on the city of Argos, where he was slain.

The republic of Achaia, or *Achean League*, as it is generally denominated, formerly little known, began now to make a conspicuous figure. This republic was of high antiquity. It consisted originally of twelve inconsiderable cities; but so firmly united, as to command the respect of their more powerful neighbors. Their first government was regal. But in process of time, roused by the tyranny of their princes, they threw off the yoke of kings, and united in one confederacy, for their mutual defence against monarchical oppression. It was agreed, that all should have the same interests, the same friendships, the same coins, weights and measures, the same laws, and the same magistrates. These magistrates were elected annually, by a majority of voices in the whole community. Twice in the year, or oftener, if necessary, there was a general assembly, consisting of deputies from the different cities; and to their decision were referred all questions of peace or war, and all foreign and domestic concerns. The equity and humane spirit, which breathed in the civil constitutions

of the Achæans, supported by a great simplicity of manners and good faith, recommended them so effectually to the adjoining nations, that they became the arbiters of differences among their neighbors. They were deprived of their liberties and independence by Philip of Macedon, and continued subject to petty tyrants, imposed upon them by his successors, till the reign of Pyrrhus, B. C. 280, when the Achæan League revived; and several of the tyrants were expelled, or put to death. After an interval of twenty-five years, the adjacent state of Sicyon joined the League, chiefly through the influence of Aratus, a native of that city. Aratus was the son of Clinias, the most illustrious citizen of Sicyon, who, after wresting the government from one tyrant, had fallen a sacrifice to the cruel jealousy of another. Aratus, then a child, escaped with difficulty to Argos. By his father's friends in that city, he was kindly received, and liberally educated; and his proficiency fully rewarded their goodness. As he arrived at manhood, his mind was continually occupied with the most ardent desire of emancipating his native city from tyranny. This he finally accomplished, with the assistance of his friends, by a well concerted attack in the night. The next day, liberty was proclaimed in the market-place, "in the name of Aratus the son of Clinias;" and, soon after, the state obtained admission into the Achæan confederacy. The valor and wisdom of Aratus now drew on him the attention of all that part of Greece; and he was advanced to the dignity of *General of Achæia*. He soon expelled the Macedonians from Corinth; and that city, called, from its importance, the *key of the Peloponnesus*, was added to the confederacy. This took place in the reign of Antigonus, king of Macedon; who had regained his kingdom after its conquest by Pyrrhus. He was succeeded by his son Demetrius; and he, after a reign of ten years, by his brother, Antigonus II., the only prince, says Gillies, that for many years really adorned the Macedonian throne.

In the mean time, the Achæan League received many and important accessions. Megara, Megalopolis, Argos, and many other cities joined it; and, soon afterwards, Athens herself, nearly as populous as when she was the proud mistress of Greece. But jealousy, which was the evil genius of the Greeks, disturbed the tranquillity of this rising state. The restless and ambitious Etolians watched, with an anxious eye, the growing reputation and rapidly

increasing power of the Achæans; and, unmindful of the signal benefits they had received from the League, excited several Grecian states, and especially Sparta, to declare war against them. The Spartans had previously united with the Achæans against the Etolians.

Lacedæmon had, before this time, exchanged poverty and hardy discipline for opulence and voluptuous manners. The conquests of Lysander and Agesilaus poured a tide of wealth into their country, which was quickly followed by a yet more destructive inundation of luxury, avarice, and voluptuousness. The wealth, however, had passed into the hands of a few, while the mass of the population were reduced to extreme penury. Such was the state of public affairs, when Agis ascended the throne. His family was considered the most opulent in Sparta; and the young prince inherited a splendid patrimony. But neither the abundance of his wealth, nor the indulgent fondness of his mother and grandmother, by whom he was educated in luxurious ease, prevented him from forming, in his youth, a design, which he never relinquished, of restoring the ancient discipline of Sparta. He began with reforming himself, by renouncing all habits of self-indulgence, laying aside his splendid attire, and partaking of the plainest and simplest food. Having procured the support of some powerful friends, he brought forward a decree for cancelling all debts, dividing the lands into equal portions, and re-establishing the neglected laws of Lycurgus relative to public education and diet. The decree was lost in the council of the Ephori. But Agis, not yet discouraged, summoned an assembly of the people, and advocated the cause of reform with so much ability, that the proposed measures were eagerly embraced. Before his plan could be completed, he was obliged to quit Sparta, and take command of the army appointed to act with Aratus, against the Etolians. During his absence, his opposers gained strength, and matured a conspiracy, which broke out immediately after his return. The Spartans were accustomed to the joint reign of two kings; Agis fell a sacrifice to the vengeance of his colleague Leonidas. Cleomenes succeeded his father, Leonidas, shortly after; and entered vigorously into the plans of Agis for reforming his countrymen. Convinced, that the failure of Agis was to be ascribed chiefly to the mildness of his disposition and the clemency of his measures, Cleomenes resolved to act with decision. He suppressed

the council of Ephori, which he considered as the fountain-head of corruption. An assembly was then called, in which all the decrees of Agis were adopted, and the constitution restored to its pristine simplicity and vigor. A general division of lands took place, of which Cleomenes set the first example, by giving up his own hereditary estates. Public schools were established, in which the Spartan youth were trained up according to the severest laws of Lycurgus. But the result proved how vain was the attempt to reform a people, whose character and habits were wholly depraved, and to pluck up abuses, which had taken such deep root. No sooner had Cleomenes quitted Sparta, to take the command of the army, than the galling yoke was thrown off, and the new discipline relaxed. It was to this prince, that the Etolians applied for assistance in depressing the power of the Achæans. He listened to a counsel highly favorable to his own views; and, by an assault as successful as it was unexpected, seized Mantinea and some other cities in the Peloponnesus. The Achæans were thus reduced to the necessity of repelling the aggressions of a commonwealth, which they had once good hopes of incorporating with their own.

Success, for a time, crowned the Spartan cause. The cool and deliberate valor of Aratus could oppose no effectual resistance to the ardent impetuosity of Cleomenes, who took several cities of the confederacy, gained repeated victories over the allies, and reduced them to the utmost extremity. Both Aratus and Cleomenes wished to unite all the nations of Peloponnesus into one commonwealth, and, by that means, to form such a bulwark for the liberties of Greece, as might set all foreign power at defiance. But neither of these great characters could consent to submit to the other.

The last resort of the Achæan general was the king of Macedon, Antigonus II., for whose assistance he secretly applied. A compact was formed, of which the principal conditions were, that the citadel of Corinth should be delivered into the hands of the king; and that he should be at the head of the Achæan confederacy, superintend their councils, and direct their operations. The scale of victory now turned. Cleomenes was obliged to retreat towards Sparta. The opposing forces came to an engagement near Sellasia, in which the Lacedæmonians were entirely defeated. Of an army of 5000, scarcely 200 remained.

Cleomenes escaped first to Sparta, and afterwards to Egypt, where he lived some years, the friend and counsellor of Ptolemy Euergetes; but was treated in such a manner by his successor, that he put an end to his life. In this war between the Macedonians and Spartans, Philopœmen first signalized himself, and afforded early proof of those transcendent military talents, which afterwards rendered him so illustrious.

The alliance which had been formed between Aratus, on the part of the Acheans, and Antigonus II., king of Macedon, continued through the greater part of the reign of Philip, the son of Demetrius, his successor. The prudent firmness and wise policy of Aratus frustrated the intrigues of courtiers and enemies, and rendered even the ambition of Philip subservient to the interests and liberties of Achaia. The protection of the League was solicited by the injured and oppressed in every part of Greece, who looked to this, as their last refuge, the citadel of expiring freedom. Its enemies were gradually conciliated by the wisdom and moderation of Aratus, who, at length, accomplished a general pacification. Soon after this, Aratus had the misfortune to offend Philip, over whom he had long possessed an entire influence. The consequence was, that an emissary was sent into Achaia, with secret instructions to take him off by slow poison. He died in the 62d year of his age, greatly lamented, B. C. 213.

About this time the king of Macedon unwisely involved himself in hostilities with the Romans, by proffering and affording assistance to Hannibal, in the Punic war. The war was continued, with some intervals, for several years, till at length, in the reign of Perseus, the son and successor of Philip, Macedon was entirely subjected to the Roman power. In the mean time, the Macedonians and Romans struggled for the sovereignty of Greece, which retained scarcely a shadow of independence. The Acheans still maintained their influence, and displayed great vigor under the conduct of Philopœmen. This distinguished general, a native of Megalopolis, improved the discipline of the army, inured them to hardship and toil, and taught them to feel, that, with him at their head, they must be invincible. He defeated Nabis, the tyrant of Sparta; and, after his death, prevailed upon that state to join the League. Philopœmen was elected general of Achaia, the eighth time, at the age of seventy. Attacking the Messenians soon after,

he was separated from the main body of his army, taken prisoner, and put to death. Thus fell Philopœmen, "*the last of the Greeks*," in the same year with Hannibal and Scipio.

This event was an irreparable calamity not only to Achaia, but to the whole of Greece. Notwithstanding the efforts of Lycortas and his son Polybius, who served their country with zeal and fidelity, the influence of the Achæans began manifestly to decline. The other Grecian states, blinded by jealousy, and deceived by the false professions of the Romans, rejoiced in the decay of a republic once so formidable. It was a favorite maxim with the Romans, *Divide and conquer*; and this maxim they practised with success in this unhappy country. In almost every city, were three parties, the Macedonian, the Roman and the independent party. In this distracted state of society, without a commanding genius to preside, it would scarcely be expected, that a vigorous and determined effort would be made by the Greeks, in defence of their liberties. The Romans, in the mean time, adopted the most cautious line of policy, professing to adhere to the proclamation, which the proconsul Flaminius had made of "freedom to all the cities and states of Greece." But when Paulus Emilius had defeated Perseus, the king of Macedon, and taken possession of his empire, the mask was immediately thrown off. Etolia first felt the weight of the vindictive arm of the conqueror. For when her senate was assembled to deliberate on the steps they should pursue, after the conquest of Perseus, with whom they had formed an alliance, they were suddenly surrounded by a Roman legion, and 550 of the senators, who were considered friendly to Macedon, were put to death. Emissaries were sent into every part of Greece, to obtain information of the disaffected, and every artifice was employed to obtain possession of their persons, that they might be summarily tried and condemned by the commissioners, sent to settle the affairs of Greece.

The Achæan League was the only remaining obstacle to the entire subjugation of the country. It was, therefore, determined by the Roman senate, to dissolve the confederacy. Two commissioners appeared before the general assembly of Achaia, and accused the principal members, including all who had borne any office in the republic, of disaffection to Rome. Many of these, conscious of their integrity, appealed to the Roman senate, where, they

flattered themselves, they should find impartial justice. The appeal was eagerly accepted; and no less than a thousand of the chief citizens were sent to Rome, for trial. But instead of being permitted to plead their cause before the senate, on their arrival, they were treated as guilty of the charge, and banished into different parts of Italy, where they languished in captivity seventeen years. At the expiration of that period, the survivors, amounting to not more than 300, were permitted to return to Achaia. One of these prisoners, Polybius the historian, was suffered to reside at Rome, and treated with the highest distinction by the principal families.

The injustice and cruelty of the Romans to the Achean prisoners, produced a strong sensation throughout the League, and inclined many of its members to avow themselves openly the determined enemies of Rome. Two of its pretors, Critolaus and Diaeus, were particularly active in exciting the Achean cities to revolt; and, without considering either the vast resources of the enemy, or their own inefficiency, rashly enkindled the flames of war, by treating with insult and cruelty the Roman ambassadors. Aurelius Orestes, Sextus Julius, and Metellus, were successively despatched to Achaia with conciliatory overtures; but the people yielded themselves to the infatuation of their presumptuous leaders, and rejected every overture, with disdain. The Roman general, Metellus, having tried negotiation without effect, led his army into Achaia, met, and defeated with the utmost ease, the rash and unskilful Critolaus, who was either killed in the engagement, or destroyed by his own hand, immediately afterwards. But Diaeus, who succeeded him in the presidency of the Achaeans, pursued the same infatuated measures, and employed the winter in making feeble preparations for another campaign.

The affairs of Greece having arrived at this crisis, the consul Mummius hastened thither to supersede Metellus, and reap all the glory of adding another province to the Roman republic. He sat down with a numerous army before Corinth, and, knowing the impetuous temper of the Achean general, suffered him to gain some slight advantages, that he might the more effectually entrap him. The artifice succeeded. Diaeus and his army fell into the ambuscade; and the celebrated city of Corinth was taken without opposition.

Corinth had long been the richest city of Greece. It abounded with the most exquisite productions of art, and the finest specimens of taste. The most eminent sculptors and artists had either resided there, or conveyed thither, the happiest effects of their genius, assured of meeting with liberal patronage among the refined inhabitants of that luxurious city. Yet this seat of elegant literature, this emporium of taste and learning, was devoted to plunder. The Romans had not yet attained to so high a degree of intellectual refinement, as to value the literary treasures of Corinth: anxious chiefly to secure the gold and silver it contained, the greater part of these works of taste were consigned to the flames. A few specimens only were secured by Polybius, who witnessed the melancholy scene, and who transported them to Rome, to excite the admiration of future generations and distant ages. Pursuant to an express decree of the Roman senate, Corinth was reduced to ashes, 952 years after it was founded, and in the same year, in which Carthage met with a similar fate, 146 B. C.

Nothing now remained, but to decide on the punishment of the vanquished Greeks. All the citizens of Corinth, who were not massacred during the pillage of the city, were sold with their wives and children; the fortified cities of Achaia were dismantled; popular assemblies were prohibited, and republican governments abolished, throughout Greece; Roman pretors were stationed in every city; all the states were consolidated into one province, which paid an annual tribute to the republic of Rome; and long continued to form a department of that flourishing empire, under the general name of Achaia. But though the victorious arms of that republic thus triumphed over the civil liberties of Greece, and annihilated her ancient governments, that subjugated country retained, for ages, its literary pre-eminence. It was still the resort of men of taste and letters. A Grecian education was considered necessary to form the Roman orator, poet, or artist. The philosophers of Greece were held in the highest repute, and their writings were sought with the utmost avidity. Nor did the literati of Rome esteem themselves thoroughly furnished, till they had visited Greece, and paid enthusiastic homage to her stately ruins.]

From the foundation of the commonwealth of Athens, by Cecrops, to the death of Cleopatra, the last of Alexander's successors, was upwards of 1400 years. During this period,

the Greeks founded and overturned the greatest empires; they excelled all other nations in architecture, statuary, painting, poetry and oratory; they gave the world its first hero; they exhibited the greatest variety of character, and the most astonishing displays of genius; and they may be considered as justly meriting the first rank among the nations of the earth. Their history, therefore, and their language, open a more variegated, rich, beautiful and sublime field of study, than those of any other nation.

CHAPTER XI.

KINGDOM OF ROME.

[ALL nations seem willing to derive merit from the splendor of their original; and, where history is silent, they generally supply the defect with fable. The Romans were particularly desirous of being thought descended from the gods, as if to hide the meanness of their real ancestry. They pretended to derive their origin from Eneas, the son of Anchises and the goddess Venus. Having escaped from the flames of Troy, and passed through unnumbered toils, calamities and dangers, Eneas was considered as having arrived in Italy. Here, at length, he was exalted to a throne, where his posterity were supposed to have reigned more than 400 years.

Romulus, the reputed descendant from this line of kings, is universally acknowledged as the founder of the Roman state.

Having slain his brother Remus, he laid the foundation of a city, that was destined to become the mistress of the world, and, for ages, to give laws to mankind. It was called *Rome*, after the name of the founder, and built upon the Palatine hill; though afterwards it covered seven hills.

The city was, at first, almost square, containing about a thousand houses. It was nearly a mile in compass, and commanded a small territory round it, of about eight miles over. Small as it appears, however, it was, notwithstanding, worse inhabited; and the first method, to increase its numbers, was opening a sanctuary for all malefactors, slaves, and such as were desirous of novelty. These came in great multitudes, and contributed to increase the number of our legislator's new subjects. To have a just idea, therefore, of Rome in its infant state, we have only to

imagine a collection of cottages, surrounded by a feeble wall, built rather to serve as a military retreat, than for the purposes of civil society; filled, rather with a tumultuous and vicious rabble, than with subjects inured to obedience and control. We have only to conceive men bred to rapine, living in a place, that seemed calculated merely for the security of plunder; and yet, to our astonishment, we shall soon find this tumultuous concourse uniting in the strictest bonds of society; this lawless rabble putting on the most sincere regard for religion; and, though composed of the dregs of mankind, setting examples to all the world, of valor and virtue.

Scarcely was the city raised above its foundation, when its rude inhabitants began to think of giving some form to their constitution. Romulus left them at liberty to choose whom they would for their king; and they, in gratitude, concurred to elect their founder. He was, accordingly, acknowledged as chief of their religion, sovereign magistrate of Rome, and general of the army. Besides a guard to attend his person, it was agreed, that he should be preceded, wherever he went, by twelve men, called *lictors*, armed with axes, tied up in a bundle of rods. They were to serve as executioners of the law, and to impress his subjects with an idea of his authority.

The senate, consisting of 100 men, who were to act as counsellors to the king, was composed of the principal citizens of Rome, men, whose age, wisdom, or valor, gave them a natural ascendancy over their fellow subjects. As they were supposed to have a parental affection for their people, they were called *fathers*; and their descendants, *patricians*. To them belonged all the dignified offices of the state, as well as of the priesthood. The rest of the people were called *plebeians*; and these two orders were forbidden to intermarry. The plebeians, who composed the third order of the legislature, assumed to themselves the power of authorizing those laws, which were passed by the king, or senate.

The first care of the new-created king was to attend to the interests of religion. The precise form of their worship is unknown. The religion of that age principally consisted in firm reliance upon the credit of their soothsayers, who pretended, from observation on the flight of birds and the entrails of beasts, to direct the present, and dive into futurity. Romulus, by an express law, commanded,

that no election should be made, no enterprise undertaken, without consulting the soothsayers.

Wives were forbidden, upon any pretext whatever, to separate from their husbands; while, on the contrary, the husband was empowered to repudiate his wife, and even, in some cases, to put her to death. His laws relating to children and parents were still more severe. The father had entire power over his offspring, both of fortune and life: he could sell or imprison them at any period of their lives, or in any stations, to which they were arrived.

After endeavoring, by laws, to regulate his subjects, he next gave orders to ascertain their numbers. The whole amounted but to 3000 foot, and about 300 horsemen, capable of bearing arms. These were divided equally into three tribes; and to each he assigned a different part of the city. Each of these tribes was subdivided into ten curiae, or companies, consisting of a hundred men each, with a centurion to command it, a priest, called *curio*, to perform the sacrifices, and two of the principal inhabitants, called *dumviri*, to distribute justice.

By these wise regulations, each day added strength to the new city; multitudes flocked in from the adjacent towns; and it only seemed to want women to ensure its duration. In this exigency, Romulus, by the advice of the senate, sent deputies among the Sabines, his neighbors, entreating their alliance, and offering to cement the most strict confederacy with them. The Sabines, who were then considered as the most warlike people in Italy, rejected the proposal with disdain, and the answer which they returned greatly raised the indignation of the Romans. Romulus, soon after, proclaimed a feast in honor of Neptune throughout all the neighboring villages, and made the most magnificent preparations for it. These feasts were generally preceded by sacrifices, and ended in shows of wrestlers, gladiators and chariot courses. The Sabines, as he expected, were among the foremost, who came to be spectators, bringing with them their wives and daughters.

In the mean time, the games began, and, while the strangers were most intent upon the spectacle, a number of Roman youth rushed in among them, with drawn swords, seized the youngest and most beautiful women, and carried them off by violence. In vain the parents protested against this breach of hospitality. In vain the females themselves opposed the attempts of their captors. Perseverance and

caresses obtained those favors, which timidity, at first, denied; so that the betrayers, from being objects of aversion, soon became partners of their dearest affections.

But, however the affront might have been borne by them, it was not so easily overlooked by their parents. A bloody war ensued, in which several cities engaged. Tatius, king of Cures, was the last, although the most formidable, who undertook to revenge the disgrace his country had suffered. He entered the Roman territories at the head of 25,000 men, and, not content with superiority of numbers, he added stratagem also. Tarpeia, daughter to the commander of the Capitoline hill, happened to fall into the hands of Tatius, as she went out of the city, to fetch water. Upon her, he prevailed, by means of large promises, to betray one of the gates to his army. The reward she engaged for, was what the soldiers wore on their arms, by which she meant their bracelets. They, however, either mistaking her meaning, or willing to punish her perfidy, threw their bucklers upon her, as they entered, and crushed her to death. The Sabines being thus possessed of the Capitoline, after some time, a general engagement ensued, which was renewed for several days with almost equal success; and neither could think of submitting. The last engagement took place between the Capitoline and Quirinal hills. The engagement had become general, and the slaughter prodigious, when the attention of both sides was suddenly turned from the scene of horror before them, to one of greater interest. The Sabine women, who had been carried off by the Romans, with disordered hair, and ornaments neglected, flew in between the combatants, regardless of their own danger, and, with loud outcries, implored their husbands and fathers to desist. The two armies, as if by mutual consent, let fall their weapons. An accommodation ensued, by which it was agreed, that Romulus and Tatius should reign jointly in Rome; that a hundred Sabines should be added to the senate, and that the inhabitants should be called *Quirites* from the Sabine city, Cures. About five years after, Tatius was killed by the Lavinians, so that Romulus, once more, saw himself sole monarch of Rome.

Success produced an equal share of pride in the conqueror; so that he began to assume absolute sway, and attempted to govern those laws, to which he had formerly professed implicit obedience. The senate, finding themselves only used as instruments to ratify the rigor of his

commands, determined to destroy him. The precise method which they employed is not known; but it is certain, that, from the secrecy of the fact, they took occasion to persuade the multitude, that he was taken up to heaven. Thus, him, whom they could not bear as a king, they were contented to worship as a god. Romulus reigned 37 years.

After the death of Romulus, the senate undertook to supply the place of king, by taking the government each of them in turn, for five days. This form of government having continued a year, the discontent of the plebeians rendered it necessary to choose a king. After much difficulty, the Romans elected Numa Pompilius a Sabine, to the regal office. He was now about forty, and had long been eminent for his justice, moderation and exemplary life. He was skilled in all the learning and philosophy of the Sabines, and lived at Cures, contented with a private fortune, unambitious of higher honors. It was not without the greatest reluctance, and the most earnest entreaties of his friends, that he consented to forsake his retirement, and accept a kingdom. No monarch could have been more proper for them, at a conjuncture, when the government was composed of various petty states, lately subdued and but ill united. They wanted a master, who, by his laws and precepts, could soften their fierce dispositions, and, by his example, induce them to a love of religion and every milder virtue. Numa's whole time was spent in inspiring his subjects with a veneration for the gods, building new temples, &c. That of Janus, which was to be shut in time of peace, and open in war, was built, as he pretended, by the advice of the goddess Egeria, with whom he professed to have intercourse. He divided those lands, which Romulus had gained in war, among the poorer part of the people, and abolished the distinction between Romans and Sabines, by compelling them to live together. He died at the age of more than fourscore years, having reigned forty-three in profound peace.

The successor of Numa was Tullus Hostilius; a monarch very unlike his predecessor, being entirely devoted to war, and more fond of enterprise, than even the founder of the empire had been.

Engaging in a war with the Albans, it was proposed to settle the controversy by single combat. When it was found difficult to fix upon the combatants, they at length concluded, that the Horatii, three Roman brothers, who

were twins, should contend with the Curiatii, three twin brothers, on the part of the Albans; all six remarkable for courage, strength and activity. At length, the champions met in view of the two armies. Totally regardless of personal safety, each one sought the destruction of his opponents. The spectators, in horrid silence, trembled at every blow, and wished to share the danger. For a considerable time, victory appeared doubtful. At length, it seemed to declare against the Romans. They beheld two of their champions dead upon the plain, and the three Curiatii, who were wounded, slowly pursuing the survivor, who seemed, by flight, to beg for mercy. At this, the Alban army shouted, and the Romans repined at the apparent baseness of their countryman. Soon, however, they changed their sentiments. His flight was only a stratagem, to separate his antagonists. Suddenly he stops, and, one after another, lays them all dead at his feet. Agreeably to compact, the Albans consent to obey the Romans. Not long after this, Hostilius demolished the city of Alba, and removed the inhabitants to Rome.

After a victorious reign of 32 years, Tullus Hostilius was succeeded by Ancus Martius, grandson of Numa. His election was made by the people, and confirmed by the senate. He took his grandfather for his model, and endeavored to persuade the people to return to the arts of agriculture, and lay aside the less useful stratagems of war. Being forced into a war with the Latins, however, Ancus conquered them, destroyed their cities, and removed their inhabitants to Rome. He triumphed, also, over the Sabines and others, and built a port at the mouth of the Tiber, called *Ostia*. B. C.
640.

After a reign of 24 years, Ancus was succeeded by Tarquin the Elder, whose original name was Lucumon. His father was a merchant of Corinth, who settled in Italy, on account of some troubles at home. Lucumon married Tanaquil, a lady of Tarquinio. He had been guardian to the sons of the late king; and after his death, he contrived to have them set aside, and himself elected. A kingdom, thus obtained by intrigue, was, notwithstanding, governed with equity. He added a hundred members to the senate, making their number three hundred. After reigning 38 years, he was murdered by two ruffians, at the instigation of the sons of Ancus. Servius Tullius, his son-in-law, succeeded him. The chief object of his reign, was to increase

the power of the senate by depressing that of the people. To ascertain the increase of his subjects, he instituted a regulation, called a *lustrum*, by which all the citizens were to assemble in the Campus Martius, in complete armor, once in five years, and there to give an exact account of their families and fortunes. In the beginning of his reign, to secure his throne by every precaution, he had married his two daughters to the two grandsons of Tarquin; and as he knew that the women were of opposite dispositions, as well as their intended husbands, he resolved to cross their tempers, by giving each of them to him of a contrary turn of mind; her that was meek and gentle, to him that was bold and furious; her that was ungovernable and proud, to him that was remarkable for a contrary character. By this, he supposed, each would correct the failing of the other, and that the mixture would be productive of concord. The event, however, proved otherwise. Lucius, his haughty son-in-law, soon grew displeased with the meekness of his consort, and placed his whole affections on Tullia, his brother's wife, who answered his passion with sympathetic ardor. As their wishes were ungovernable, they soon resolved to break through every restraint, that offered to prevent their union. Both undertook to murder their consorts, which they effected; and were, accordingly, soon after married together. A first crime generally produces a second. From the destruction of their consorts, they proceeded to

B. C. 534. conspiring that of the king; which they at length accomplished, with circumstances of savage cruelty, after he had reigned 44 years.

Lucius Tarquin, or Tarquin the Proud, having thus placed himself upon the throne, was resolved to support his dignity with the same violence, by which it was acquired. Regardless of the senate's or people's approbation, he seemed to claim the crown by hereditary right, and refused the late king's body burial, under pretence of his being a usurper. All the good part of the community, however, looked upon this accession with horror and detestation; and this act of cruelty only served to confirm their hatred. Conscious of this, he ordered to execution all whom he suspected to have been attached to Servius. His policy consisted in keeping the people constantly employed in wars and public works; and thus he diverted their attention from his unlawful method of coming to the throne. The city of the Gabii gave him much trouble; for having

attempted, with some loss, to besiege it, he was obliged to direct his efforts by stratagem, contrary to the usual practice of the Romans. He caused his son Sextus to counterfeit desertion, upon pretence of barbarous usage, and to seek refuge among the inhabitants of the place. By artful complaints and studied lamentations, he so prevailed on the pity of the people as to be chosen their governor, and soon after, general of their army. At first, he was successful in every engagement, till at length, finding himself possessed of the confidence of the state, he sent to his father for instructions. Tarquin made no other answer, than by taking the messenger into the garden, and cutting down before him, the tallest poppies. Sextus readily understood the meaning of this reply; and one by one, found means to destroy, or remove, the principal men of the city, confiscating their effects, and dividing them among the people. Thus keeping the giddy populace blind to their approaching ruin, till they found themselves, at last, without counsellors or head; and, in the end, fell under the power of Tarquin, without even striking a blow.

But while engaged in wars abroad, he did not suffer the people to continue in idleness at home. He undertook to build the capitol, the foundation of which had been laid in a former reign; and an extraordinary event contributed to hasten the execution of his design. It is said, that during this reign, a woman in strange attire, made her appearance at Rome, and came to the king, offering to sell nine books, which she said were of her own composing. Not knowing the abilities of the seller, or that she was in fact one of the celebrated Sybils, whose prophecies were never found to fail, Tarquin refused to buy them. Upon this, she departed, and burning three of her books, returned again, demanding the same price for the remainder. Being once more despised as an impostor, she again departed, and burning three more, she returned with those remaining, still asking the same price as at first. Tarquin surprised at the inconsistency of her conduct, consulted the augurs to advise him what to do. These much blamed him for not buying the nine, and commanded him to buy the three remaining at whatever price they were to be had. The woman, says the historian, after selling and delivering the three prophetic volumes, vanished from before him, and was never seen after.

The people, having been four years employed in building the capitol, began to wish for something new, to engage them. Tarquin, therefore, upon some frivolous pretences, proclaimed war against the Rutulians. Sextus, the king's son, while his father was at the head of the army, besieging the city of Ardea, violated the honor of Lucretia, a Roman lady of great spirit and still greater virtue. The illustrious heroine survived the disgrace long enough to acquaint her husband and friends with her misfortune, and to entreat them, as they regarded her memory, to take vengeance on her destroyer. She then drew a poniard from her robe, and plunging it into her bosom, expired before their eyes.

Collatinus her husband, and her friends stood round her, petrified with grief, and distracted with rage and despair. But their grief was for a moment arrested and turned into astonishment, when Brutus, the reputed fool, seized the bloody dagger, and, lifting it toward heaven, exclaimed, "Be witness, ye gods, that from this moment, I proclaim myself the avenger of the chaste Lucretia's cause. From this moment, I declare myself the enemy of Tarquin and his bloody house. Henceforth, my life shall be employed in opposition to tyranny, and for the freedom and happiness of my country." He then told them, that tears and entreaties must now give way to the sterner sentiments of just revenge; and delivering them the poniard, still reeking with Lucretia's blood, caused each of them to swear the same oath, that he had sworn. The Roman people flocked from all quarters, and were struck with horror at the deplorable spectacle; and were equally amazed to behold the authority and wisdom of Junius Brutus. The revolt from the tyrant was general; and the senate passed a decree depriving the king of all authority, and banishing him and his family forever from the Roman state. He lived, however, to give his country much trouble; for though a detestable tyrant, void of every principle of humanity and justice, yet he was bold, active and vigorous, and found means to excite frequent disturbances, and even to enkindle dangerous wars against his country.]

We have now passed over 245 years from the founding of the Roman state. During this period, the Assyrian empire had fallen; Babylon was become a province of Persia; and Cyrus had extended his dominions from the Indian to the Atlantic ocean; and a power was already pre-

pared to eclipse forever the glory of the Persians. Greece was fast rising; the morning of her brightest day evidently dawned. Before the fall of Tarquin, Miltiades, Leonidas and Themistocles were born. During this period, also, the Jews, having experienced a captivity of 70 years, were restored by Cyrus, and had returned, and rebuilt their temple at Jerusalem.



CHAPTER XII.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE,* FROM THE EXPULSION OF TARQUIN TO THE CONQUEST OF CARTHAGE.

THE great and vigorous spirit of Lucius Junius Brutus, displayed in avenging the death of Lucretia, may be regarded as a brilliant specimen of that power and grandeur of mind, in which the Romans surpassed all other nations, both ancient and modern. In variety of genius and taste, the Greeks certainly excelled them; but in a masculine boldness—in a grave, dignified, martial energy, the Romans were never equalled. Brutus and his associates were able to dethrone a powerful tyrant; to abolish a monarchy, which had existed several centuries; and to organize, and put in operation, a new form of government, under which the Roman people rose to the sublimest heights of power, prosperity and splendor.

The Roman government, during the reigns of the kings, had, in its original spirit and design, embraced many of the principles of freedom. The king was assisted by a council, consisting of a hundred senators, which number was increased at various times. These were men advanced in years, and venerable for their knowledge, prudence and integrity. The most important acts of government were generally sanctioned by an assembly of the people, or plebeians, particularly acts relative to peace or war, the raising of money, the appointment of chief magistrates, and the election of the monarch.

But the kings, and especially Tarquin, had, in a great measure, acted independently of all these salutary checks. To avoid these inconveniences, the kingly office was now

* The word *empire* is here used in its popular sense, to represent merely government, or dominion, without reference to its form.

abolished; and, in the place of it, two officers were substituted, styled *consuls*. Their power was nearly as great as that of the king; but the division of it, and the frequency of election, which was once a year, were considered as sufficient checks. Junius Brutus and Collatinus, the husband of the celebrated Lucretia, were first chosen consuls.

This new form of government was brought to the brink of ruin, almost in the moment of its formation. The deposed monarch found means to organize a dangerous conspiracy among the young nobility of Rome; the object of which was to effect a counter revolution, and replace himself on the throne; and the brave and patriotic Brutus had the unhappiness to discover, that two of his sons were among the ringleaders in this daring plot. The nature of his office compelled him to sit in judgment upon them; and while, in this deeply interesting scene, all the spectators were melted into tears, in him the most powerful pleas of natural affection were overruled by a sense of duty; the parent was lost in the judge, and the agonies of parental sensibility disregarded before the tribunal of public justice. He pronounced sentence upon his sons, condemning them to death.

But this great man did not live long to enjoy either the liberty, which he procured for his country, or the honors, which he so justly merited. Tarquin, failing to recover his throne by intrigue, next attempted it by arms. He prevailed on the Veians, a neighboring state, to espouse his cause, and to furnish him with an army. Of this army he took the command, and gave the cavalry to be commanded by Aruns, his son. They were met by the consul with an equal force; and a general battle was fought, in which the Romans claimed the victory, although dearly bought; for, together with a number of their bravest citizens, the illustrious Brutus fell in the first of the action. Aruns, the son of Tarquin, had singled him out; and they encountered each other with such fury, that both were slain, and fell dead together by mutual wounds. The Veians, sufficiently humbled by this rebuke, were willing to make peace.

But of all the enemies, whom Tarquin brought against his country, Porsenna, king of Etruria, was the most formidable. This prince, who was then, probably, one of the most powerful in Italy, seems, from motives of jealousy, to have been willing to engage in a war with the Romans.

To him Tarquin applied; and was soon furnished with a force, which at first bid fair to reseate him on his throne.

Porsenna marched immediately toward Rome, at the head of a powerful army; and, meeting with no resistance, he laid siege to the city. After several furious assaults and sallies, the siege was terminated by one of those singular events, which strongly mark the savage ferocity and wonderful patriotism of the heroic ages. The length and strictness of the siege had reduced the city to the utmost distress of famine, when Mutius Scevola, a Roman youth of the most daring courage and desperate resolution, approached the camp of Porsenna, and finding access to the place where the king stood with some of his officers, he proceeded to the group, and stabbed the person, whom he supposed to be the king; but it was the king's secretary. Mutius was seized; and it was demanded of him, who he was, and what were his designs. He told them, that he was a Roman, and that there were three hundred Roman youths, who, like himself, had determined to effect the king's destruction. "Therefore," said he, "prepare for their attempts; and you shall see that the Romans know how to suffer as well as to act." At this, he thrust his hand into the fire, and suffered it to burn with great composure.

Porsenna, amazed at such intrepid bravery, was seized with a fit of generosity quite as enthusiastic and extraordinary, and ordered him to be conducted back to Rome, and, at the same time, offered the besieged conditions of peace, which they accepted; and a period was put to the war.

The Roman commonwealth, in every part of its duration, was incessantly harassed with internal disputes, broils, divisions, intrigues and conspiracies; and they were generally settled by the mediation of the sword; though not always by the sword of civil war. Their bold, restless, active spirits were best gratified, and soonest quieted, in martial exercises; and could only be controlled by martial law. Of course, theirs was, in most respects, a military government.

Ten years from the commencement of the Roman republic, Largius was appointed first dictator. The title itself explains the general nature of this office. The dictator was clothed with power to dictate, i. e. to direct all the branches, and all the officers of the government. His power was sovereign and absolute, as that of the most unlimited monarch. He was only chosen in times of difficulty

and danger, when the utmost energy of the state was to be exerted; and his power expired at the end of a certain period.

Soon after the invasion of Porsenna, and 15 years from the expulsion of Tarquin, a contention arose between the senate and the people, which gave rise to the appointment of Tribunes. These were officers chosen annually from among the people. They were clothed with considerable powers, and were designed as the immediate guardians of the people, against the power of the senate and consuls. They were at first five, and afterwards ten in number; seats were prepared for them near the doors of the senate house; and they were, at times, called in, to ratify the laws, which were passed in the senate.

[*Coriolanus*.—The story of Coriolanus appears too important to be omitted in this Compend. His original name was *Caius Martius*. The name *Coriolanus* was added, from his victory over Corioli, a city of the Volscians, where, from a private soldier, he gained the amplest honors.

He drew upon himself the resentment of the people, by taking part with the patricians, in a public dispute, and by insisting, that some rights, which the senate had been induced to resign, should be restored. So enraged were they, that he was ordered to take his trial before the people, as having aimed at sovereignty and tyranny. Conscious of his innocence, he appeared before them with the utmost dignity. He began his defence by recounting all the battles he had fought, and showing the various crowns, with which he had been rewarded by his generals; exposing to view the scars of the numberless wounds he had received in acquiring them, and calling upon those, whose lives he had saved, to bear witness to the truth of his recital. These persons, with the most moving protestations, entreated their fellows to spare that life, by which they lived; and if there must be an offering for public resentment, they themselves were ready to die for him. A defence like this, supported with all that boldness, which conscious innocence inspires, moved every hearer to think of pardon. Many cried out, that so brave a man deserved a triumph, not death, and that this very trial was a national reproach. The giddy multitude were going, therefore, to absolve him, when Decius, one of the tribunes, a man of fluent eloquence, rose up and accused him of having appropriated to himself and his friends, the plunder, which he had taken from the

enemy, thus violating the law, requiring him to appropriate it to the use of the public. Coriolanus had, in fact, when the people refused to enlist, issued out at the head of his clients, and plundered the enemy, who had the insolence to make incursions to the very walls of Rome. These spoils, which were so justly earned, he never thought of bringing into the treasury, as they were the acquisition of a private adventure. Being, therefore, unable to answer what was alleged against him, to the satisfaction of the people, and utterly confounded with the charge, the tribunes immediately took the votes, and Coriolanus was condemned to perpetual exile. Amid the rejoicings of the people and the lamentations of the senate, he alone seemed an unconcerned spectator. He returned home, to take a lasting leave of his wife, his children and his mother Veturia, and then left the city, to take refuge among the enemies of Rome. He directed his course to Antium, a city of the Volscians, where he obtained the friendship and assistance of Tullus Attius, who was a violent enemy to the Romans.

War being declared by the machinations of Tullus, he and Coriolanus were made generals of the army. They invaded the Roman territories, ravaging and laying waste the possessions of the plebeians, but suffering those of the senators to remain untouched. At Rome, all was confusion and distress. The army, sensible of the superiority of Coriolanus, once their own commander, assembled with great reluctance; while the Volscians, sure of success, flocked to his standard with alacrity. Town after town was taken by them. Every day, they advanced nearer; and at last approached the walls, with the intention of besieging the city. The senate and people now agreed to send deputies to him, with proposals of restoring him, in case he should draw off his army. Coriolanus received them with severity, and told them, that he was now general of the Volscians, and had only their interest to consider. He proposed his conditions, and gave them thirty days for deliberation. At the end of that time, he returned, and again encamped before the walls. Another embassy was sent forth, conjuring him not to exact from his native city, aught, but what became Romans to grant. Coriolanus, however, naturally inflexible and severe, still persisted in his former demands, and granted them but three days to decide. The city was now filled with consternation, and in

the general confusion, there was neither discipline, nor command.

In this exigence, they determined to send another deputation more solemn than the former, consisting of the pontiffs, the priests and the augurs. But all in vain. Though he received them with respect, they found him severe and inflexible as before. When the people saw them return unsuccessful, they began to give up the commonwealth as lost. Nothing was to be heard but lamentation.

At length, it was suggested to them, that what could not be effected by the intercession of the senate, or the adjuration of the priests, might be accomplished by the tears of his wife, or the commands of his mother. Accordingly, Veturia his mother undertook the embassy, accompanied by his wife and children, and the principal matrons of Rome. Coriolanus, who, at a distance, discovered this mournful train of females, resolved to give them a denial. But when told, that his mother and his wife were among the number, he instantly came down from his tribunal to meet and embrace them. At first, their tears and embraces took away the power of words; and the rough soldier himself could not refrain from sharing in their distress. "My son," cried his mother, "how am I to consider this meeting? Do I embrace my son? or my enemy? Am I your mother? or your captive? How have I lived to see this day? to see my son a banished man? and still more distressful, to see him the enemy of his country? How has he been able to turn his arms against the place, that gave him life? how, direct his rage against those walls, which protect his wife, his children and his gods? But it is to me only, my country owes her oppressor. Had I never been a mother, Rome had still been free. The wretched consciousness of this will afflict me as long as life shall last; and that cannot be long. But though I am prepared for death, yet, at least, let these wretched sufferers claim some part of your compassion. Think, what must be their fate, when to banishment, they must add captivity." Coriolanus, during this speech, seemed much agitated by contending passions. His mother who saw him moved, still seconded her words by the most persuasive eloquence, her tears. His wife and children hung round him, entreating for protection and pity, while the fair train, her companions, added their lamentations, and deplored their own and their country's distress. Coriolanus, for a moment, was silent, feeling the

strong conflict between honor and inclination. At length, as if roused from his dream, he flew to take up his mother, who had fallen at his feet, crying out—"O my mother, thou hast saved Rome, but lost thy son!" He accordingly gave orders to draw off the army, pretending to the officers, that the city was too strong to be taken. Tullus, who had long envied his glory, was not remiss in aggravating the lenity of his conduct to his countrymen. Upon their return, Coriolanus was slain in an insurrection of the people, and afterwards honorably buried, with late and ineffectual repentance.]

The most eminent character, found in the first part of the annals of the ancient republic of Rome, is that of Quintus Cincinnatus. His chief services were in the year 458 B. C. and in the 50th from the fall of Tarquin. We have already mentioned the frequent disputes and divisions, which prevailed between the two orders of Roman citizens. These, which ran high on all occasions, had, but a little time before this, come very near to rending in pieces and extinguishing the republic forever. The popularity, banishment, wars, restoration and death of Coriolanus, so famous in the Roman history, have been briefly noticed. Those events, while they distracted the counsels and exhausted the resources of Rome, emboldened her enemies to make new aggressions.

The forces of the Æqui and Volsci had invaded the Roman territories; had surrounded, and were likely to destroy, the consul Minutius and his army, who inadvertently suffered himself to be pent in between two mountains, whence he could not retreat, but by encountering the enemy. At the same time, political disputes were carried on with such warmth at Rome, that most men were wholly ruled by the most violent party spirit. All union and energy were lost; and the more discerning saw the ruin of the commonwealth impending. The Romans had, on a former occasion, experienced the great virtue and authority of Cincinnatus. To him, therefore, all eyes were now turned, as the most suitable instrument for delivering their country.

In the 50th year from the expulsion of Tarquin, a solemn legation was sent to Q. Cincinnatus, from the senate, to invest him with the sovereign powers of dictator. They found him industriously laboring in his field. He had a farm, consisting only of a few acres, which he cultivated with his own hands, for the support of his family. On the

arrival of the senatorial message, he showed some concern for the neglect, with which he should be obliged to treat his plantation; but manifested no marks of vanity or pride at his sudden elevation. He took leave of his family with apparent regret, and repaired to the capitol. He immediately nominated, as a captain of his cavalry, Tarquinius, a man in similar circumstances, and of like character with himself.

He issued his orders with mildness, but with such authority, dignity and decision, as none can assume, but those great and vigorous spirits, which are formed for command. He gave orders, that every citizen, who could bear arms, should appear before sunset in the Campus Martius, with arms, and provisions for five days. His orders were obeyed; and an army was immediately assembled. At their head, the dictator began his march that evening; and before day, came within sight of the hostile army. As they approached the enemy's camp, Cincinnatus ordered his men to give a loud shout; which was heard by the blockaded army, and understood to be a token that relief was near. The enemy, finding themselves between two armies, prepared for battle. A severe engagement ensued; but the bravery and conduct of the dictator procured the Romans a complete victory. The spoils of the enemy's camp were valuable. These, Cincinnatus ordered to be divided among his own army, without allowing the army which he had liberated, to share with them in any thing; holding it as a maxim, that, as they could not defend themselves, they merited nothing.

But, what is regarded as most remarkable in this transaction, Cincinnatus, though a poor man, took nothing of all the wealth, of which he had the control and distribution, to himself. Nor would he accept any thing from the senate, who regarded him as the deliverer of his country; and, from gratitude for his important services, would gladly have bestowed upon him the richest presents. Very many have celebrated, but *very few* have imitated, his virtues. He was satisfied with the consciousness of having done his duty, and justly merited a great and lasting fame.

The year 451 B. C., about sixty years from the commencement of the republic, may be considered as an important era in the history of Rome. The contentions between the various orders of the state, for privilege, prerogative, and power, still raged without intermission, till, at length, all

parties, growing weary of these disturbances, united in an expedient, which at once shows the wisdom and greatness of the Roman character. They unanimously determined on introducing a body of written laws; whose influence might prevent, as well as punish, crimes, and especially, that thereby the decisions of the magistrates might be governed by known and fixed principles.

Posthumius, Sulpicius and Manlius, three senators of high rank, whom the suffrage of the Roman people had declared worthy of so great a trust, were immediately sent to Athens and other Greek cities, to consult their laws, to extract from them a code of such as were most approved, and report them to their fellow-citizens in due time. In the course of a year, this business was accomplished. These ambassadors returned, and brought with them a body of laws, which they had selected from the most celebrated systems of Greece. These were formed into ten tables, two others being some time after added, making the number twelve. This was that famous code of laws, known by the name of the "laws of the twelve tables." Many fragments of this body of laws remain until the present time.

Nations in general, when they enjoy good government and excellent laws, resemble a body in perfect health—a body, in which the various animal and vital functions are complete and vigorous. This now began to be the condition of Rome. Though it had not experienced much increase of territory, yet its numbers, strength, experience and wisdom, were fast rising to power and conquest. It must not, however, be understood, that Rome was yet free from political disputes, or even from outrageous infractions of law and justice. That time she was destined never to see.

When the laws of the twelve tables were adopted, a new kind of magistracy was created. Ten persons, called *decemvirs*, were appointed to see to the administration of government, and to enforce the authority of the laws. Their reign was short. It began well; but ended in disgrace and misfortune. The term of their administration ended in the consummate villany of Appius, one of their number, and in the affecting story of Virginius and his daughter; for which the reader must be referred to the Roman history. To them succeeded another kind of magistrates, called *military tribunes*; and these were again succeeded by consuls, according to the first form of the republic.

But it would be improper, in this work, to attempt to trace the Roman government through its tortuous course, or to enter into the various controversies of those early times. Whoever expects to find a free government without continual disputes, divisions, intrigues, innovations and revolutions,* must be a stranger to the human character, as displayed in the history of nations. Where all power and authority originate with the people, and are under the control and direction of their suffrage, there is too wide and alluring a prospect for ambitious men to neglect. They never did neglect it, and they never will.

After Cincinnatus, the Roman history presents us with no character worthy of particular notice, till the times of the illustrious Camillus; nor with any considerable event, till the formidable invasion of Rome by the Gauls, under Brennus. This will carry us forward through a period of about sixty years, during which the Roman state made considerable advances in population, territory and the art of war. Camillus had afforded the most important services to the state; had conquered several cities, and by a long course of conduct, had risen to the highest honors among his countrymen. This was sufficient to draw down upon him a storm of envy and jealousy, which all his wisdom, power and popularity could not sustain. The tribunes, always turbulent and clamorous, and often unjust and cruel, roused the public resentment against him, by pretending, that he had embezzled and secreted much of the plunder taken in the city of Veii; and they appointed a day, on which he was to appear before the people in his own defence. Conscious of his innocence, yet disdaining the mortifying indignity of sustaining a public trial before a people, whom he had laid under such high obligations, and whose resentment, he knew, had rather sprung from their envy of his virtue, than from any other cause, he took leave of his friends, and evaded the approaching storm by going into voluntary exile.

The triumph of the tribunes and the plebeians, on the fall of this great man, was of short duration. A storm far more terrible menaced the whole state, than he had fled to escape.

* Those who live in the Millennium, will doubtless find such a government. When the Son of God shall make all the nations free, they will be free indeed; and, certainly, they will be free from continual disputes, &c.—*Ed.*

We have, in a former chapter, had occasion to mention the Scythian hordes, which, in ancient times, inhabited the wilds of Europe and Asia; which, like an inundation, at various times, flowed down upon the more civilized nations; or, like swarms of locusts, seemed to darken the sun and the air. The ancient inhabitants of Germany and France resembled them in those respects, in which they were most formidable. France was then called Gaul. The Gauls were men of great size and strength. They were exceedingly bold, fierce, and terrible in war. It is said, that even a glance of their eye was so terrible, as to dismay and affrighten armies. A numerous body of these had, two centuries before this, crossed the Alps, and settled in the northern parts of Italy; and had long been a terror to all the country. Brennus, their warlike chieftain, was at this time at their head, besieging Clusium, a city of Etruria.

The martial spirit of the Romans being roused at so near an approach of this hostile nation, and being earnestly solicited by that city to send them aid, they despatched ambassadors to Brennus, to demand of him, what right he had to invade that city. The Gaul sternly replied, that the "rights of valiant men lie in their swords;" and demandèd, in return, what right the Romans had to the many cities they had conquered. The ambassadors, displeased with the haughty style of Brennus, and either forgetful or ignorant of their duty, immediately entered the city, and took an active part in the war.

Brennus was enraged at the conduct of the ambassadors, and forthwith raising the siege of Clusium, he marched directly to Rome, probably glad of a pretence for effecting a preconcerted measure.

Rome had now stood 364 years, and had been a republic 119. Its territories were considerably extended; and the city itself was become opulent, splendid and powerful. The neighboring cities had fallen under its power; and those more distant were willing either to pay homage for their independence, or seek the alliance of the Romans. The Gallic king could not but believe, that if he conquered Rome, the empire of Italy would follow of course; and, perhaps, one much greater. It will be remembered, that the Gauls, about this time, attempted both Greece and Asia, and that with considerable success. From the former, they were expelled by Sosthenes; and from the latter, by Antiochus Soter; as noticed in our view of Greece and Syria.

The Romans were apprized of the approaching danger, and sent an army, composed of the flower of their republic, to meet and oppose the Gauls. An obstinate and bloody battle was fought, in which the Romans were utterly defeated, and their army destroyed. Brennus, elated with victory, and still breathing revenge and fury, continued his march towards Rome. [He entered the city without resistance: and marching into the Forum, there beheld the ancient senators, sitting in their order, observing a profound silence, unmoved and undaunted. The splendid habits, the majestic gravity, and the venerable looks of these old men, who had all, in their time, borne the highest offices of the state, awed the barbarous enemy into reverence. They took them to be the tutelar deities of the place, and began to offer blind adoration. At length, one more forward than the rest, put forth his hand to stroke the beard of Papyrius, who had lately been dictator. This insult, the noble Roman could not endure; but lifting his ivory sceptre, struck the savage to the ground. This seemed a signal for general slaughter. Papyrius fell first; and all the rest shared

B. C. 385. his fate, without mercy or distinction. Thus the fierce invaders pursued their slaughter for three days, sparing neither sex nor age; and then setting fire to the city burnt it to the ground.]

Nothing seemed now to remain of the Roman state capable of defending itself, but the celebrated capitol; where a body of the bravest of the Romans held out against every effort of the Gauls. Brennus, at length, grew weary of the siege, and proposed to the Romans, that, if they would pay him one thousand pounds weight of gold, he would draw off his army, and give them no further trouble. They accepted the proposal; and the gold was produced. But while it was weighing, some of the Gauls attempted to kick the beam, to prevent a just weight. The Romans complained of so flagrant an injustice; but Brennus immediately cast his sword into the balance, and gave them to understand, that their complaints would be useless—that they must think of nothing but compliance with the will of their imperious conqueror.

At that moment, intelligence was brought, that Camillus, the general, whom they had so unjustly banished, was approaching at the head of an army. He had heard of the calamities of his country; and, having raised a body of forces, was so fortunate, as to arrive at that critical

moment, when his presence was necessary, and his exertions effectual, to the salvation of his country. Camillus entered the place, where the business was transacting, and immediately ordered the Romans to take back the gold whence it was brought; telling Brennus, with an air as haughty as that of the barbarian, that the Romans were in the use not to purchase peace with money, but with iron.

The presence of this great man revived the drooping spirits of his countrymen. They rallied round his standard; and encountering the barbarians with the most resolute bravery, defeated and almost entirely cut them off. Thus Rome was delivered from the most dangerous enemy, if we except Hannibal, that she was to see for many ages.

The Roman people, in these ancient times, exhibited the strangest mixture of bravery, superstition, barbarity, discipline, enthusiasm, levity and wisdom. They were continually engaged in war, and were generally successful. But the dreadful chastisement they received from the hand of Brennus and the Gauls, was attended by consequences as lasting as deplorable. Their territories, still but small, were ravaged; their city laid in ashes; many of their bravest men killed in battle; and their resources severely drained, though not exhausted; for their resources, as yet, were not money, nor strong fortresses, nor large territories, nor numbers, nor powerful allies. Their resources consisted in firm, determined spirits; great souls, fearless of danger and of death; minds strong, bold, intrepid and persevering. To brave danger was to them the field of glory; and their only alternative was death or victory. They enjoyed victory, and endured defeat, with equal moderation; and this they were able to do beyond any other nation; because nature had endued them with independent, unconquerable minds, and with invincible bravery and magnanimity.

After the invasion of the Gauls, the Romans rose more experienced, more warlike, more formidable, than ever. We soon see them engaged in a war with the Samnites, the most powerful nation then in Italy. This war lasted many years, and was attended with various turns of fortune; and when it was likely to terminate in complete victory and triumph on the side of the Romans, an event took place, which seemed once more to threaten the existence of the Roman nation.

The Samnites, overpowered by the bravery and discipline of the Romans, sent for aid to Pyrrhus, the celebrated

king of Epirus, of whom we have already taken some notice. It was generally thought impossible for the Romans to contend successfully with this great commander. He had been formed, in the art of war, upon the maxims and examples of Alexander and Epaminondas; and notwithstanding the degeneracy of the Greeks and Asiatics, from whom the military spirit had long since departed, had been able to inspire the armies he commanded, with his own heroic virtues. He had found no equal in Egypt, or Asia. Happy would it have been for him, had he pursued more closely the footsteps of Alexander, and especially had he kept at a distance from Italy; though even that might not have saved him from a collision with the growing power of the Romans.

B. C. 280. Pyrrhus immediately prepared to comply with the request of the Samnites. He embarked from Epirus, with an army of twenty thousand foot, three thousand horse, and twenty elephants; but, in crossing the Adriatic, his fleet was dispersed in a storm, and many of his vessels were lost. Although his armament was greatly diminished, he still thought the remnant more than a match for the rude and barbarous people of Italy. His judgment of the Romans was probably not dissimilar to that formed of the American people before the revolutionary war; at which time, some imagined, that a few thousand regular troops would strike an awe through the continent, and that the semi-barbarians of the colonies would never dare to face disciplined and veteran troops.

But Pyrrhus found the Romans not so rude and barbarous, as he expected. The first view he had of their military order and skill, struck him with surprise; and the first victory he gained, in all probability, utterly extinguished his hopes of subduing the Romans. It is worthy of remark, how differently the Romans received this invasion of Pyrrhus, from what the Persians did that of Alexander. Pyrrhus found the Romans ready to receive him; and when he offered to mediate between them and the Samnites, he was answered by Lævinus, the consul, that the Roman people neither respected him as a mediator, nor feared him as an enemy.

The first battle was fought on the banks of the river Lyris. Pyrrhus drew up his army with the utmost skill; nor was there a want of skill and discernment in the order and movements of the Romans. Here was first seen con-

trusted the Grecian phalanx with the Roman legion; nor have the ablest tacticians been positive in determining which, on all accounts, was preferable. The loose array of the legion gave celerity to its evolutions, and certainly admitted of various conveniences; but the close and firm strength of the phalanx, by condensing the physical force, rendered its impression more certain, and its shock more dreadful.

The field, by both parties, was managed with great skill, and was fought with the most determined bravery. Motives of safety and of honor wrought powerfully with both generals, and both armies; and it is probable, that few battles have been more severe. But the Greeks, at length, prevailed; and Pyrrhus, by the aid of his elephants, which were sent among the Romans, gained a complete victory. The Romans were put to flight, leaving fifteen thousand men dead on the field of battle. But the loss of Pyrrhus was not much inferior; insomuch, that, while some were congratulating him on account of his victory, he is said pathetically to have exclaimed, that another such victory would ruin him.

[*Fabricius*.—The Romans, in a war with Pyrrhus, the king of Epirus, sent an embassy to him concerning the ransom and exchange of prisoners. At the head of this venerable deputation, was Fabricius, an ancient senator, who had long been a pattern to his countrymen, of the most extreme poverty, joined with the most cheerful content. This practical philosopher, who had been formerly consul, and was now the ambassador of Rome, had no other plate furniture in his house, except a small cup, the bottom even of which was of horn. When the Samnites had formerly offered him large presents, he refused them, saying, that he was already rich, as he had learned the art of lessening his wants by retrenching his appetites. Pyrrhus received this celebrated old man with great kindness, and, willing to try how far fame had been just in his favor, offered him rich presents, which, however, the Roman refused. The day after, he was desirous of examining the equality of his temper, and ordered one of his elephants to be placed behind the tapestry, which, upon a signal given, raised its trunk above the ambassador's head, at the same time, using other arts, to intimidate him. Fabricius, however, with a countenance no way changing, smiled upon the king, observing, that he looked with an equal eye on the terrors

of this day, as he had upon the allurements of the preceding. Pyrrhus, pleased to find so much virtue in one he had considered as a barbarian, was willing to grant him the only favor, which he knew would make him happy,—that of releasing the Roman prisoners.

Fabricius was again made consul, and marched against Pyrrhus. While the two armies were approaching, a letter was brought to Fabricius from the king's physician, importing that for a proper reward, he would take him off by poison. Instead of employing the physician to perpetrate the murder, he exposed the intended murderer to his master; intimating to Pyrrhus, at the same time, that he had been extremely unfortunate in the choice of his friends and of his enemies. "Admirable Fabricius!" cried Pyrrhus, "it would be as easy to turn the sun from its course, as thee from the paths of honor."]

Pyrrhus once more tried the virtue of negotiation. He sent Cineas, a man of great eloquence, who had been the scholar of Demosthenes, ambassador to Rome. But this attempt, like the former, was without success. The Romans were deaf to all proposals of accommodation, short of Pyrrhus's retiring out of Italy. Neither eloquence, nor bribery; neither threats, nor persuasions, could produce any effect on that haughty, determined people. The war was, therefore, renewed with great vigor on both sides; and various battles were fought, with more success to the Romans; till, at length, Pyrrhus was totally defeated, and his army cut in pieces. Giving up all hopes, therefore, of effecting any thing against so brave and powerful an enemy, he was forced to embark in haste, and leave his allies to the inevitable fate of subjugation by the victorious Romans. Pyrrhus, however, left a garrison in the city of Tarentum, and advised the Tarentines to support their cause with what vigor they could, till he could have time to levy more forces in Greece, and return. But he probably had little expectation of ever returning to those shores, where he had experienced so severe a reverse of fortune. It is certain, he never did return; nor did he ever seem to recover the current of his former good fortune.

The Tarentines, who had been the principal leaders in the war of the Samnites, were now left to struggle with the Romans; nor would the struggle have been long, had they not made application for aid to another foreign power. While the garrison left by Pyrrhus tyrannised in the city,

and the Romans were masters of the country round them, they applied to the Carthaginians for succor, as their last and only resort.

We have already made mention of the Carthaginians. As early as the invasion of Greece by Xerxes, they were powerful both by sea and land; and furnished, according to some writers, an army of 300,000 men, who operated in conjunction with the Persians. They were willing, it appears, to interfere with the Romans, of whose growing power they had long been jealous. They soon drew a powerful fleet into the harbor of Tarentum, with a view to check the progress of the Roman arms. It had not, however, the desired effect. The Romans found means to corrupt and bring over the garrison to their interest; in consequence of which, the city was taken, its walls and fortifications demolished, and the inhabitants were granted their liberty and protection from the Romans.

The military spirit, as we have seen in the former part of this Compend, passed from the Assyrians to the Persians, from them to the Greeks, and from the Greeks to the Carthaginians. Though the origins of Rome and Carthage, according to many writers, were not very far distant, in point of time, yet the latter rose first to consequence; and while Rome was only a single city, and the Romans an obscure horde, the Carthaginians, by their fleets, kept the shores of the Mediterranean in awe, possessed the islands of that sea; had, in fact, passed the strait of Gibraltar; coasted down the African peninsula, and up the shores of Europe, through the British channel; and, it is thought, had reached the coasts of Norway, if not even the shores of the Baltic sea. They form one of the numerous proofs, and one not the least splendid, of the power and consequence, which commerce will give a nation.

We shall here digress a moment, by giving a brief sketch of the rise and greatness of Carthage; a power, which held a long and doubtful contest with Rome for empire; nor would she have failed in that contest, if, while her fleets and armies were victorious abroad, she had not been weakened by disunion, and rent by factions at home.

Carthage was founded by a colony from ancient Phœnicia, a country lying at the east end of the Mediterranean, whose chief cities were Tyre and Sidon. If we might rely on Virgil's authority, this famous city was founded by Dido, the sister-in-law of Pygmalion, king of Tyre, about the

time of the destruction of Troy. According to the story of the Latin poet, Æneas, the Trojan prince, who had escaped the ruins of his country, was driven by a storm on the coast of Africa, and there had an interview with Dido, the founder and queen of Carthage.

That virtuous and lovely queen, whose constancy to the memory of her husband, Sichæus, even surpassed the fame of Penelope, received the fugitive Trojans, rescued them from the utmost distress, and protected them from the barbarous customs of the hostile people, on whose shores they were cast. To reward her for this, a plot was laid in heaven, among the principal deities, for her destruction. Cupid, the god of love, was sent down to assume the form of Ascanius, the son of Æneas, to inflame the passions of Dido, while Venus lent all her aid to the hero himself. As soon as the powers of heaven, combined, had enabled him to triumph in the most complete seduction of his benefactress, Mercury comes flying down in all haste to apprise him, that it is now time to be gone. And, like all other villains, whose triumph over innocence is followed with indifference and disgust, he hastens away. The queen, unable to bear his enormous ingratitude and peerless atrocity, kills herself in despair.

Did it accord with the temper and genius of Virgil to make his favorite hero the instrument of such distress and distraction to innocence and virtue? Did he think it would do honor to the gods of his country to father upon them as dark a plot as ever was fabricated in hell? Did he think it would be an additional gem in the diadem of Æneas, to make him trample on the virtue of the Tyrian queen? Or, in a word, did he imagine, that, by the introduction of his wonted machinery, a veil of sanctity would be thrown over the whole, and cover all its deformities?

But, though it would seem extraordinary, that Virgil should, through ignorance or choice, fall into such a glaring anachronism, yet it is certain, that the best authorities place the founding of Carthage at a great distance from the destruction of Troy. According to the opinion of the learned Bochart, the city of Carthage was built about the time of Joshua's conquest of Canaan. The territories of Tyre and Sidon were allotted to the tribe of Asher; and many of the Phœnicians, at that time, to avoid a war of extermination, went on board their vessels, and sought for new establishments. A company of them landed, and made



Fabricius and the Elephants.



Cornelia's Jewels.

a settlement on the African shore, a few miles from where the city of Tunis now stands. There they laid the foundation of Carthage. But this was two centuries and a half before the siege of Troy. Bochart, in this opinion, has followed the best ancient authorities; and he has been followed by the ablest chronologers since his time, who, moreover, fix the emigration of Dido to the African shore nearly two centuries and a half after the Trojan war.

The Carthaginians, descended from a people, whom long voyages and extensive commerce had rendered enterprising and bold, followed the footsteps of their mother country; and soon went far beyond her. Their commerce, which embraced almost every species of traffic, extended to all parts of the known world. Their ships were in the Mediterranean and Red seas, and in many parts of the Indian and Atlantic oceans.

But we cannot notice here their wars and revolutions. They seem, however, not to have interfered much with the great monarchies of Asia; and it is certain, that their power by sea was, in general, their security against invasion. The first notice we have taken of them, was in the invasion of Greece by Xerxes. Him they furnished with an army to invade Sicily; which invasion, by means of weakness in the directing head, proved unfortunate in all its parts. But Sicily, however, and most other islands in the Mediterranean, soon after that invasion, fell under the power of Carthage.

Under the name of a republic, the Carthaginians were generally governed by a set of powerful men, who never wanted means to procure their own appointment to the most important offices. Nor can it be said, that Carthage ever enjoyed the free and independent spirit of Rome.

The government and policy of the Carthaginians, as indeed of all the ancient nations, was interwoven with their religion. For the sake of illustrating this by example, I have inserted a passage from Rollin's Ancient History, which he has taken from Polybius. The passage is found in the words of a treaty between the Carthaginians and the king of Macedon, and will show us the solemn manner in which their treaties were formed. "This treaty was concluded in the presence of Jupiter, Juno and Apollo; in the presence of Daimons, of the Carthaginians, of Hercules and Iolaus; in the presence of Mars, Triton and Neptune; in the presence of all the confederate gods of the Cartha-

ginians, and of the sun, moon and earth; in the presence of the rivers, meads and waters; in the presence of all those gods, who possess Carthage.”

The government of Carthage, much like that of the Roman republic, consisted of three orders. The Suffetes, of which there were two, answered in most particulars to the consuls of Rome. They were appointed annually, and are called sometimes kings, dictators or consuls. Their power was great. The senate consisted of men most remarkable for wisdom and prudence, and formed their council of state. Their number is not known. The whole body of the people composed the lower order. But the people generally submitted all matters of government to the senate. Towards the time of the conquest of Carthage, by the Romans, however, the people grew turbulent, factious and rebellious; and being led by aspiring demagogues, they interfered, and finally subverted the state. In general, their government was sufficiently virtuous to give security to private property, and consequently to promote industry and enterprise; but it was frequently cruel, tyrannical, tumultuary and impolitic. When Hannibal was upon the point of conquering Rome, a faction in the senate of Carthage ruined him. But there must be a cause for the dissolution of all governments, states and empires. Even Rome, after having flourished her day, fell into disorder, confusion, weakness and ruin.

The Romans were now masters of Italy; an extensive, fertile, and, in many parts, a populous country. We have now no means of coming at the probable number of inhabitants; but Italy now sustains twenty millions of people, notwithstanding the great degeneracy of morals and want of industry, which prevail in that country. From various circumstances, which attract our notice in the Punic war, we may safely conclude, that Italy then contained several millions of people.

The resources of the two powers we are now considering, were very different, but very great. Carthage, by extensive and prosperous commerce, had amassed the wealth of the world. She abounded in gold and silver, and in every species of valuable, elegant and luxurious merchandise. She had also an immense population. The northern shores of Africa were then the granary of the world; they were full of people; they were the fruitful nursery of armies; and the number of their vessels was

prodigious. But the Africans, at this time, were neither inebriated by luxury, nor enervated by their warm climate. They had powerful armies; and it was their good fortune to have a number of great generals, who were perhaps never surpassed in some essential points of the military character. They were crafty, intrepid, brave; and especially they were impetuous and almost irresistible in their modes of attack.

The Romans were as yet poor; they were actuated by patriotism and love of glory. Their courage was cool, but firm and unshaken; and was always most thoroughly roused by the greatest danger. They were inured to hardships, and were, in one word, a nation of soldiers. For, as Cineas told Pyrrhus, that every one of their senators was fit for a king, so he might also have said, that every one of their soldiers was fit for a general.

Such being the contending parties, it will not be thought extravagant, when we observe, that the contest between Rome and Carthage was conducted with the firmest spirit, and the greatest resolution; that it was the most equally matched, and vigorously fought: in short, that it was the most severe, whether we regard the extremity, extent, or duration of its operations; and the most illustrious, whether we regard the characters concerned, or the consequences which followed, of any found in the annals of history. In this contest, the two greatest powers in the world were engaged; and it was certain, that whoever was victorious must remain without a rival.

The expulsion of Pyrrhus from Italy, and reduction of the Samnites and Tarentum, completed the subjugation of Italy, and left the Romans masters of the garden of Europe. They must now find new fields of glory. The prospect northward was uninviting. There lay the Alps and the fierce nations of Gaul. Eastward lay Greece, separated from them by the Adriatic sea, which was possessed by the fleets of Carthage. Sicily, divided from them only by a narrow strait, allured them by its immense riches, and was easy of access; but there the grasping power of Carthage had already unfurled its victorious standard.

Hiero, king of Syracuse, was engaged in war with the Mamertines, a small Sicilian state; and being hardly pressed, he called in the Carthaginians to his aid, who presently furnished him with prompt assistance by sea and land. The Mamertines, seeing themselves thus overmatched,

immediately sent to the Roman senate, and put themselves under the protection of the Romans. The senate, still mindful of the interference of the Carthaginians in the siege of Tarentum, determined now on a trial of strength, and without further delay, declared war against Carthage. Thus commenced what is commonly called the first *Punic* war.*

It was soon perceived by the Romans, that any advantage they might gain in Sicily over their adversaries, could neither be very important, nor permanent, so long as their adversaries were masters of the seas. As chimerical as it might seem, they determined to remove this impediment. Their own immense peninsula furnished them with numberless harbors; their forests afforded them timber; their genius promised them skill; and their hardy sons might easily become excellent seamen. About the same time a Carthaginian vessel falling into their hands, they took it as their model, and went without delay to building a fleet. In a short time a fleet was built, and equipped for sea. Of this naval armament, Duillius took the command; and immediately putting to sea, he encountered and defeated one of the principal fleets of Carthage, sinking or destroying fifty of their ships. A victory so brilliant and so unexpected, and achieved by the infant navy of Rome, gave mankind new ideas of the capacity and genius of the Roman people. But we cannot descend to a minute detail of particular events. The Romans, having gained several advantages both by sea and land, determined without delay to carry the war into Africa, in hopes of terminating it by one decisive effort.

They soon fitted out a fleet more powerful than the former, and prepared to make a descent upon the coast of Africa. This army was commanded by Regulus, at that time considered the greatest general in Rome; a man eminent for integrity, bravery and all the virtues of the patriot and hero. Regulus was no sooner at sea, than he was met by the fleets of Carthage. A battle ensued, in which the Romans came off with complete victory and triumph. They landed, and, encountering an army composed of the flower of Carthage, once more obtained a signal victory. In consequence of this, many towns and

* The wars between the Carthaginians and Romans, are called *Punic* wars, because the ancient Carthaginians were Phenicians.—*Ed.*

cities submitted to the Roman army. Such a series of severe defeats and heavy losses filled Carthage with grief, terror and astonishment; and it was apprehended, that the Romans would immediately complete the conquest of Africa.

But it should be remembered, that the histories of these transactions were generally written by Roman pens. Allowance must, therefore, be made for such glosses and colorings, as might be expected from a people, unwilling to acknowledge the military merit of other nations. The Carthaginians, in this extremity, sent to Lacedemon, and requested Xantippus, a celebrated Grecian general, to command their armies. Their request was granted; and the almost desperate affairs of Carthage assumed a new form.

This brave and gallant commander soon appeared at the head of an army; gave battle to the Romans; defeated them with dreadful slaughter; and Regulus, the Roman general, was taken prisoner. It is remarked by some, that events either fortunate or disastrous, seldom come alone. This remark holds good in the present case; and fortune seemed now willing, for a while, to shift sides. The Roman senate, almost at once, received intelligence of the loss of Regulus and his army, of the total loss of their fleet in a storm at sea, and of the capture of Agrigentum, their chief town in Sicily, by Kasthalo, the Carthaginian general. Having put another fleet to sea, it was also driven ashore and wrecked in a storm.

It may be presumed, that the fleets of those times were but poorly built and equipped, to resist the dangers of the sea; and if to this idea we add that of their ignorance of the art of navigation, it is matter of wonder, how they accomplished what they certainly did, on the sea. To perform long voyages without a compass, must be attended with continual perplexity and danger. The Romans discovered this to their cost; and Eutropius remarks, that they were so disgusted and chagrined with these disasters at sea, that they in a measure abandoned forever all naval enterprise. But their prosperity on the land was ultimately more than a counterbalance. They always, however, had ships enough to transport their armies wherever they wished to send them; and they did in fact, after this, gain several victories over the Carthaginians at sea.

Regulus, in the mean time, was thrown into a dungeon, where he lay some years, while the war progressed with

vigor, but with no material advantage on either side. At length, however, as the bravery of the Romans was fatigued, and the treasures of Carthage no less exhausted, the Carthaginians thought it a favorable time to propose conditions of peace. Together with their own ambassadors, they also sent Regulus home upon parole of honor, exacting from him a promise, that he would return, provided the Romans did not accept of their conditions. The conduct of Regulus, on this occasion, has been justly celebrated through all succeeding ages. Although he knew, that the severest torments awaited his return to Carthage, yet, as the guardian of the honor of his country, he suffered no private consideration to influence his conduct. He strenuously opposed a peace, but upon terms as humbling to Carthage, as they were advantageous and honorable to Rome.

The great and noble spirit he manifested revived the courage of his countrymen, and determined them to prosecute the war. But, as for himself, he returned to Carthage, and was put to death with the most dreadful and lingering torments. This he foresaw; and laid down his life voluntarily for the good of his country. Patriots, like Regulus, are as scarce, as those are plenty, who, in the midst of the most pompous professions, would sell or sacrifice their country, to advance their own private interest.

After the death of Regulus, the affairs of Carthage experienced an evident and rapid decline; and the Roman arms prevailed in all directions, till the Carthaginians found it necessary to make peace on the most dishonorable terms. These were, that they should evacuate Sicily and the neighboring islands; give up all their prisoners and deserters without ransom; keep all their ships of war at a distance from the Roman dominions; never make war with the Roman allies; pay down a thousand talents of silver, and two thousand and two hundred more, in ten years. To these conditions Carthage acceded; and thus ended the first Punic war, B. C. 240.

The Romans themselves were willing at this time to take breath; for though, in this war, they had generally the advantage, yet it was an advantage dearly bought; and they often perceived the balance to fluctuate; sometimes to turn against them. Indeed, their scene of operations was wide; their exertions extreme and long continued, in combating a great and powerful people, who, though less warlike, certainly possessed superior resources.

At this period, while Rome enjoyed profound peace, and the temple of Janus was shut, several events took place strongly connected with the chain of causes, which was to elevate her to the summit of empire and glory. A passion for elegant literature, for the first time, began now to appear; particularly, the Grecian drama began to take place of the low, wretched and smutty satire, as it was called, which hitherto had only been known at Rome; and, from this period, the strong genius of Rome labored perpetually upon Grecian models. They never could equal their masters in dramatic composition; but, in many other species of writing, they not only equalled, but excelled; and even merited the honor of inventing several of their own.

Between the first and second Punic wars, the temple of Janus did not continue long shut. The fierce and barbarous nations of Gaul, judging it now a convenient time, when the Roman armies were disbanded, and the spirit of war seemed quiet, once more to make an attempt upon Italy, they crossed the Alps, and poured down in an immense swarm into the fruitful country of Etruria. But they learned their error when too late. They were surrounded and cut in pieces almost to a man. Viridomarus, their king, was slain by the hand of the celebrated Marcellus, who was called the *sword* of Rome. They, as might be expected, begged and obtained a peace.

The Carthaginians, who had been compelled by necessity to accept the most inglorious terms of peace, were now measurably recovered from the calamities of an unfortunate war, and determined once more on a trial of strength with the great and formidable power of Rome. They were, indeed, roused to this measure by one of the most extraordinary men, who has ever appeared in the world. Hannibal, on whom the command of the second Punic war devolved, had been from his childhood a sworn enemy to the Romans. It is said, that when he was but nine years old, his father, Hamilcar, who was himself a great and skilful general, caused him to take a solemn oath, never to be in friendship with the Romans.

The Carthaginians began the war by besieging Saguntum, a city in Spain, in alliance with the Romans. An embassy was immediately despatched to Carthage, complaining of this infraction of an existing treaty. This remonstrance failing of success, both sides once more prepared for war, in a manner suited to the greatness of the contending parties.

Hannibal, who was then in Spain, sent a part of his forces into Africa, left another part under the command of Asdrubal, his brother, to carry on the war in Spain, and at the head of about 50,000 select troops, and a formidable body of cavalry, directed his march toward Italy. Out of Spain, he passed over the Pyrenean mountains into Gaul, where he encountered and dispersed the barbarous and hostile tribes, who opposed him. He crossed the Alps with his army, an enterprise, considering that it was performed in the dead of winter, truly stupendous and astonishing. Since the heroic achievements of Hercules,* no army had ever crossed those lofty ridges, where vast declivities, frightful steeps and dreary wastes, received in succession the adventurous traveller; where nature's roughest aspect derived additional horrors from the ravages of winter; and the frequent and desperate attacks of fierce savages, issuing from the caverns and grottos of these inhospitable rocks, increased the dangers of every step.

This arduous enterprise was accomplished in about two weeks, but with the loss of nearly half the army. But nothing could repress the ardor of Hannibal. He was now on the plains of Italy; he must conquer or die.

The Romans, who carefully watched Hannibal's motions, received intelligence by the swiftest couriers, that he was crossing the Alps at the head of a powerful army. So bold an enterprise, likely to be attended with important consequences, excited considerable sensations at Rome. But what could the Romans fear? The bravest nation in the world, skilled in the art of war by the experience of ages, they had triumphed over every enemy. Even Pyrrhus, the greatest general of his time, could not stand before them. And in a former war, they had, at the gates of Carthage, prescribed to her conditions of peace. But now they were far more powerful, by increase of numbers, wealth and experience.

But we cannot particularize the events of this war. Hannibal first defeated Scipio, who met him near the river Po, with a numerous army, soon after he entered Italy. A few days after this, he encountered another army, commanded by Sempronius, on the banks of the Trebia. This army he routed with great slaughter. The third army, commanded by Flaminius, he cut off near the lake of Thrasym-

* It is by no means to be supposed that Hercules ever crossed the Alps.—*Ed.*

mene. The news of these successive defeats, spread consternation and dismay through Italy; and many of the Cisalpine Gauls immediately declared for Hannibal, and flocked to his standard. And the Sicilians, who found, that masters near at hand were more to be feared, than at a distance, now generally showed a disposition to join the conqueror.

B. C.
217.

In this alarming state of things, the mighty genius of Rome, which never failed to open to her new resources, suggested a means of checking the rapid progress of Hannibal. Fabius Maximus was appointed dictator, a man of great subtilty and craft, as well as an able and experienced commander. To him was committed, as the last resort, the defence of the republic. Having undertaken that arduous task, he adopted a mode of warfare hitherto unknown to the Romans, but since their time, often practised with success; and by no one more illustriously, than by him, who may be styled the *shield* of the American people. The Romans could bring no force into the field, which could stand before Hannibal. Fabius, therefore, endeavored to keep out of his way, but to watch his motions; to hover about him; cut off his foraging parties; to disturb and weaken him by indirect means; to harass at one time his van, and at another, his rear; and especially to let no opportunity slip of annoying him, or, as it might happen, of gaining a signal advantage. And in pursuing this system, he in fact gained several considerable advantages; and at length enclosed him in a place, from whence he could not extricate himself without difficulty and danger.

But no enclosures were sufficient long to detain him, whom no force could withstand, when at liberty. By a stratagem, he outwitted even Fabius, and gained once more the open country. And now the calamities of Rome seemed drawing toward their crisis. The command of Fabius expiring, Terentius Varro, a man of rash, impetuous courage, was appointed in his place, who advanced against Hannibal with 90,000 men, the flower and strength of Italy. Superiority of numbers, honor, shame, courage, the ancient fortune and glory of Rome—in short, resentment, rage and despair, all seemed to unite their influence upon the minds of the Romans, and to lead them on to victory and vengeance. They fought near Cannæ, and were cut in pieces almost to a man. Fifty, some say seventy, thousand were left dead on the field of battle; and it is said, that three bushels of

gold rings were sent to Carthage, which were drawn from the fingers of Roman knights.

Hannibal has been generally, perhaps justly, censured for not immediately investing Rome. Indeed some historians relate, that Maherbal, one of his principal officers, told him at the time, "that he knew how to conquer, but not how to improve his victory; and that if he would march immediately to Rome, in three days they should sup in the capitol." It appears, that Hannibal had at this time but about 40,000 foot forces, and not half that number of cavalry. If this be true, it would seem sufficient reason for his delaying the siege of Rome. Although many Romans had been killed in the war, yet there were vast numbers remaining; and of their courage, he had no reason to doubt. Had Carthage at this moment invaded Italy with several other armies; had she furnished Hannibal with three times the number of men he had, which she might have done, Rome might have been conquered. But while Hannibal was victorious in Italy, the government of Carthage was embarrassed, distracted, and rent by factions.

Immediately after the battle of Cannæ, Hannibal despatched his brother Mago to Carthage, to carry an account of his decisive victory, and to demand more troops, in order to complete the reduction of Rome. But alas! what can equal the blindness and rage of popular fury? Hanno, a powerful demagogue in the senate of Carthage, ever bent on frustrating the measures of Hannibal, prevailed against the request of Mago. And although an order was given for the raising of 24,000 foot, and 4,000 horse, yet when those forces were levied in Spain, they were sent another way, and never acted in that direction, where their aid would probably have enabled Hannibal to finish the war. Nor is this the only instance, where ambitious men have sacrificed their country, and even themselves, to their own party views.

Instead of wondering, that Hannibal did not immediately conquer Rome, nothing, indeed, can be more astonishing, than that he was able, with an army reduced to about 24,000, to maintain his ground for many years.

Hannibal, however, carried on the war, and kept possession of the finest parts of Italy, for upwards of fifteen years. But the country was large, and the Romans, taught by adversity, and being fully recovered from their first consternation, found means to evade his impetuous valor, and

make effectual opposition, without hazarding general battles. Rome owed its ultimate deliverance to several great men. Fabius, Marcellus and Scipio, afterwards surnamed Africanus, led the Roman armies, and managed their affairs with equal courage and prudence. Though they could not drive Hannibal out of Italy, they led armies into Spain and Sicily, and finally into Africa, where the war became so threatening, that the Carthaginians were obliged to recall Hannibal, to defend their own dominions. Hannibal returned, but too late. The Carthaginians were too far gone, to be rescued by mortal prowess.

Historians have generally allowed, that Alexander was the first of warriors. But if they allow the Romans to have been the most warlike of the ancient nations, it will be difficult to say, why Alexander should take precedency of Hannibal. What comparison could the Persians bear with the Romans? Hannibal, it is true, did not conquer Italy. But what *did* he do? He defeated, and nearly destroyed, four principal armies in succession. His own army was not large, nor was it recruited. The Gauls and other people in Italy, who espoused his cause, were not to be depended on; and of his own regular force, there must have been a constant diminution. Many of the bravest Roman generals he slew; their most wise and crafty he outwitted, and their greatest and most consummate, he out-generalled. In the field, he was more than a match for Marcellus, and in policy, for Fabius. Even Scipio Africanus did not conquer him, till he was overpowered and crushed by fortune.

No one can deny, that in the times of the Punic wars, the Romans were far better soldiers than the Carthaginians; but that they ever had an abler general, there is reason to doubt.

On Hannibal's leaving Italy, he found the affairs of his country in a situation nearly desperate. He had with him the remnant of those soldiers, with whom he had fought fifteen years in Italy; but they were covered with scars; worn out with toils; and their spirits broken with labor, misfortune and disappointment. Nevertheless, he encountered Scipio the Younger, whose army was far superior to his own, and did every thing which prudence and valor could do.

[It was on the plains of Zama in Africa, that this memorable battle was fought. When the armies arrived, neither party was in a condition to protract the war,

Hannibal was sensible, that the fate of his country was suspended upon the issue of a single battle. He was, therefore, desirous, if possible, to terminate the war by a treaty. For this purpose, having desired a personal interview with Scipio, the two generals met between their armies. The conference was commenced by Hannibal. He expressed his regret, that the Carthaginians had attempted any conquests beyond Africa, or the Romans, beyond Italy. "We began," said he, "with a contest for Sicily; we proceeded to dispute the possession of Spain, and we have, each in our turns, seen our native land overrun with strangers, and our country in danger of becoming a prey to its enemies. It is time, that we should distrust the caprice of fortune, and drop an animosity, which has brought us both to the verge of destruction. This language, indeed, may have little weight with you, who have, hitherto, been successful in all your attempts, and who have not yet experienced any reverse of fortune. But I pray you to profit by the experience of others. You now behold in me a person, who was, once, almost master of your country, and who am now brought, at last, to the defence of my own. I encamped within a few miles of Rome, and offered the possessions round the forum for sale. Urge not the chance of war too far. I now offer to surrender, on the part of Carthage, all her pretensions to Spain, Sardinia, Sicily and every other island, that lies between this continent and yours. I wish only for peace to my country, that she may enjoy, undisturbed, her ancient possessions on this coast; and I think, that the terms I offer, are sufficiently advantageous and honorable to obtain your consent."

To this address, Scipio replied, That the Romans had not been the aggressors in the present or preceding wars with Carthage; that they strove to maintain their own rights, and to protect their allies; and that, suitably to these righteous intentions, they had been favored by the justice of the gods; that no one knew better than himself, the instability of human affairs, nor should be more on his guard against the chances of war. "The terms," he said, "which you now propose, might have been accepted, had you offered them while yet in Italy, and had proposed, as a prelude to the treaty, to remove from thence; but now, that you are forced, not only to evacuate the Roman territory, but are stripped of part of your own, and are already driven from every post you propose to surrender, the con-

cessions are no longer sufficient. They are no more than a part of the conditions already agreed to by your countrymen, and which they, on your appearance in Africa, so basely retracted. Besides what you now offer, it was promised, on their part, that Roman captives should be restored without ransom; that all armed ships should be delivered up; that a sum of five thousand talents should be paid, and hostages given by Carthage for the performance of all these articles.

“On the credit of this agreement, we granted a cessation of arms; but were shamefully betrayed by the councils of Carthage. Now, to abate any part of the articles, which were then stipulated, would be to reward a breach of faith, and to instruct nations, hereafter, how to profit by perfidy. You may, therefore, be assured, that I will not so much as transmit to Rome any proposal, that does not contain, as preliminaries, every article formerly stipulated, together with such additional concessions, as may induce the Romans to renew the treaty. On any other terms than these, Carthage must conquer, or submit at discretion.” Hannibal was vanquished, and compelled to seek safety by flight. Thus ended the second Punic war, B. C. 202.]

The Carthaginians were now willing to make peace upon any terms; and the Romans dictated such terms, as they saw fit. But that unhappy people did not long enjoy the benefit even of a treaty, which, while it left them the name, deprived them, in reality, of independence. The Romans renewed their exactions with the haughtiest tone of despotic insolence. Submission was now in vain. The miserable inhabitants of Carthage were ordered to leave their city, which was, by a decree of the senate of Rome, condemned to be utterly demolished. Carthage, roused by despair, although, by the most base and shameful treachery, completely disarmed, now made her expiring effort. The people shut their gates, fortified their walls and towers, and, with incredible industry, fabricated such arms, as the time allowed. They made a noble resistance. But the repeated and furious assaults of a great and powerful army, could not long be resisted. The city was taken by storm, and, together with its inhabitants, perished by fire and sword.

Thus ended Carthage, one of the most renowned cities of antiquity, 146 years before Christ, 607 from the building of Rome, and above a thousand years from its foundation.

But Hannibal, destined never to grace a Roman triumph, long survived the ruin of Carthage. Still retaining his enmity to the Romans, he maintained in every place the unequal struggle, endeavoring, by any means, to annoy them or to enkindle war against them.

CHAPTER XIII.

BRIEF HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE, FROM THE FALL OF CARTHAGE TO THE REIGN OF COMMODUS, CONTAINING A PERIOD OF THREE HUNDRED AND TWELVE YEARS.

IN the infancy of Rome, she had many wars, but few conquests. In her maturity, she had few wars, and many conquests. When the power of Carthage failed, Rome no longer had a rival. Her wars, or rather invasions, after that event, were generally of her own seeking; and they were many. Rome was no sooner able to say, "Carthage must be destroyed," than, in her heart, she also said, *The empire of Alexander shall be mine*. First, Macedon felt her grasp; and Perseus was hurled from the throne of Philip and Alexander; at which time she *graciously* gave the Greeks their liberty, i. e. gave them law.

Attalus, king of Pergamus, dying about this time, left his kingdom to the Romans, by will; or, in other words, seeing the world sink beneath their power, he preferred giving them a bloodless victory, and cloaked an ignoble dereliction of right, under the specious name of a voluntary donation. Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, was destined next to fall before them. He was, at this period, the most powerful and opulent prince of all Alexander's successors; and had he accepted the advice and aid of Hannibal, there would have been, at least, a chance for his escaping the all-grasping power of Rome. But he, fearing lest, if any thing should be done, Hannibal would have all the credit, was careful to go directly contrary to the advice of that general. The Romans defeated him almost without loss of blood; stripped him of a great part of his dominions; triumphed over him; extorted from him an immense tribute; and left him only enough to grace the triumph of another campaign.

Two other great cities shared the fate of Carthage, and nearly at the same time. Corinth,* one of the noblest cities of Greece, was utterly destroyed by Mummius, the consul, for offering some indignity to the Roman ambassadors; and also Numantia, the capital of Spain. This city, after sustaining a siege of fourteen years, was reduced by Scipio. The inhabitants, being unable to hold out any longer, fired the city over their own heads, and all perished in the flames; and Spain became a Roman province.

The corruption of the senate, and the sedition and fall of the Gracchi, together with various disturbances, next arise to view, in tracing the history of Rome. Then follow the reduction of Numidia, and the civil wars in the republic, excited by the ambition of Marius and Sylla, which terminated in the perpetual dictatorship of the latter.

[*The Gracchi.*—Cornelia was a learned Roman lady, mother of the Gracchi. A lady who once visited her, having displayed her own jewels, requested to see Cornelia's. The request was evaded, till the return of her children, when she exclaimed producing them, "These are my jewels." These jewels were no other than Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, who afterward acted a distinguished part in the republic. Tiberius, the elder, first espoused the cause of the people, and exerted himself to procure the passage of the Agrarian law, for dividing the lands equally; or, more probably, the Licinian law, that none should possess more than 500 acres. This law was opposed with the utmost ardor, by the wealthy nobility, while by the poorer classes, it was strenuously promoted. Tumults were frequently excited, in one of which Tiberius lost his life, with about 300 of his adherents. Caius, though a young man, soon imitated the conduct of his brother, and as he possessed in even a greater degree, the powers of eloquence and address, he too was rewarded with the confidence of the multitude. He was twice elected tribune. But his zeal in serving the people and abridging the power of the senate, drew upon him the hatred of the latter; and they took the first opportunity to effect his destruction. They set up Drusus, his colleague, as his rival; and thus dividing the affection of the people, Gracchus was soon after slain in a popular tumult, and his head brought to the senate.]

* Cicero calls Corinth "Lumen totius Græciæ," the light of all Greece.—*Ed.*

Rome was perhaps never more powerful, or happy, than in the days of Scipio Africanus, or about the times of the Punic wars. She then experienced great misfortunes and calamities; but those untoward events, instead of weakening or exhausting her, called forth, nay, even created, new energies. From the invasion of Hannibal she rose invincible; and while that consummate warrior held his ground in Italy, she sent armies into Spain, Africa, Greece and Macedon. A great part of those immense regions, which Alexander subdued, soon shared the fate of the empire of Carthage; and in those days, with the Romans, to proclaim war was to ensure a triumph; and to invade, was to conquer.

When we look for a period in the Roman history, in which there is the greatest union of power, wisdom, virtue and happiness, it will doubtless be found not far from the times, of which we are now speaking. The Romans, in earlier times of the republic, were more virtuous and patriotic than now; but then they were weak. In the Augustan age, they were certainly more enlightened, scientific and polished; but then they were less brave; or if not less brave, their virtue was forever gone, and with it, the foundation of their prosperity and happiness.

The conquest of Africa, Asia and Greece, at once poured into the coffers of Rome, incalculable riches. On this almost boundless tide of prosperity, a set of men were soon seen floating, of a very different character from Cincinnatus, Fabricius and Regulus. To the most desperate bravery, they united unbounded ambition; and to the strongest expression of regard to their country, they united a total want of principle. The wealth of the world, like a mighty river, poured into Rome; and many individuals acquired fortunes, which transcended royal magnificence.

The elevation of Rome to such an astonishing height of power and splendor, drew to her men of parts, of taste, of ambition and enterprise, and in short, men of every description, and almost every nation. The descendants of the ancient Romans, soon became few in comparison with the immense multitudes, who, by some means or other, acquired citizenship, or obtained a residence in Italy; and Rome herself experienced as great a change, as the nations she conquered. While she drew arts, elegance and science from Greece, she drew wealth, luxury, effeminacy and corruption from Asia and Africa; and she drew a swarm of

hungry fortune-hunters from every corner of the earth, who penetrated her inmost recesses; outnumbered and overwhelmed her ancient people; in short, conquered their conquerors, corrupted their morals, and put a final period to their liberties.

The civil wars of Rome, which soon followed the period of which we have been speaking, unfold to the reader, a spectacle equally dreadful and disgusting. Many persons, who had witnessed the destruction of Carthage, were still alive, and saw all Italy deluged in blood, by Marius and Sylla. From the destruction of Carthage to the perpetual dictatorship of Sylla, was a little rising of seventy years. During the latter part of this period, Lucius Sylla, envying the power and glory of Caius Marius, involved the republic in a most bloody, disgraceful and destructive war. After various turns, which their affairs took in the progress of this eventful struggle; after they had destroyed half a million of men, including the best part of the Roman people; had humbled Rome and Italy; had shed the noblest blood, and prostrated the dignity of the republic, Sylla, an execrable monster of cruelty, tyranny and ambition, was able to triumph over virtue, liberty and justice. He seated himself quietly in the exercise of despotic power, and became perpetual dictator. Rome never saw another moment of freedom.

[*Marius and Sylla.*—Caius Marius, who has been called *the glory and the scourge of Rome*, was born in a village, near Arpinum, of poor parents, who gained their living by labor. Bred up in a participation of their toils, his manners were as rude as his countenance was frightful. He was a man of extraordinary stature; incomparable strength and undaunted bravery. Entering early, in the service of his country, he sought, on every occasion, dangers equal to his courage. The longest marches, and the most painful fatigues of war, were easy to one, accustomed to penury, and inured to labor. Having passed through the lower grades of office, he was made a tribune of the people, and soon after consul. He distinguished himself in the war with Jugurtha, king of Numidia; and was afterwards a commander in the *Social war*, as it was denominated, in which most of the states of Italy confederated against Rome, in order to obtain a redress of their grievances. In this war, Sylla began to acquire distinction. This general, who proved a greater scourge to Rome than even Marius,

now began to take the lead in the commonwealth. He was of a patrician family, one of the most illustrious in Rome. His person was elegant, his air noble, his manners easy and apparently sincere. He loved pleasure much; but glory, more. He was liberal to all, stooping even to an acquaintance with the meanest soldier. In short, he was a Proteus, who could adapt himself to the inclinations, the pursuits, the follies, or the wisdom of those, with whom he conversed; while he had no character of his own, except that of being a complete dissembler. His first rise was to be questor, or treasurer of the army, under Marius in Numidia. In the Social war, he acquired so great celebrity, that his fame began to equal that of Marius. He was chosen consul, and also general in the war, that was now determined against Mithridates, king of Pontus. This prince, who was the most powerful and warlike monarch of the East, was master of Cappadocia, Bithynia, Thrace, Macedon and all Greece. Such power, joined to great riches, served only the more to invite the ambition of Rome; and a pretext for war was easily found.

Marius had set his heart upon conducting this war, and felt indignant, that Sylla should be preferred before him. He, therefore, after much difficulty, procured a law, that the command should be transferred to himself. He, accordingly, sent officers from Rome, to take command in his name. But the army was devoted to Sylla. It was composed of troops, with whom he had gained signal victories. Instead, therefore, of obeying the orders of Marius, they fell upon his officers, and slew them; and then entreated Sylla, that he would lead them directly to take signal vengeance on his enemies, at Rome; which he immediately proceeded to do. They entered the city sword in hand. Marius and his party attempted to oppose their entrance; but after a short conflict, were obliged to seek safety by flight. Sylla now, finding himself master of the city, went on to alter such laws, as displeased him; and after proscribing Marius and some others, he departed upon his expedition against Mithridates. But while establishing his party against Marius, he had been inattentive to a very formidable opponent, in the person of Cornelius Cinna, who was daily growing into popularity and power at Rome. He had been made consul; but was deprived of that dignity, by the senate, after Sylla's departure. He then applied to the army, who, with general consent, agreed

to nominate him consul, and follow him to Rome. While thus preparing to avenge the cause of Marius, tidings were brought that Marius himself, escaping from a thousand perils, was, with his son, on the road to join him.

We have already seen this formidable general had been driven from Rome, and declared a public enemy. At the age of seventy, after numberless victories, and six consulships, he had been obliged to save himself from the numerous pursuits of those who sought his life. After wandering, for some time, in this distress, he was obliged to conceal himself in some marshes, where he spent the night, up to his chin in a quagmire. At break of day he left this dismal place; but being known and discovered by some of the inhabitants, he was conducted to a neighboring town, with a halter round his neck; and thus without clothes and covered with mud, he was sent to prison. The governor of the place, soon after, sent a Cimbrian slave to despatch him. But the barbarian no sooner entered the dungeon, than he stopped short, intimidated by the dreadful visage and awful voice of this fallen general, who sternly demanded if he had the presumption to kill Caius Marius. The slave, unable to reply, threw down his sword, and rushing back from the prison, cried out, that he found it impossible to kill him! The governor considering the fear of the slave as an omen in the unhappy exile's favor, gave him, once more, his freedom. He afterwards landed in Africa, near Carthage, and went in a melancholy manner, to place himself among the ruins of that desolated place. He soon, however, had orders from the pretor, who governed there, to retire. He prepared to obey, and said he to the messenger, "tell your master, that you have seen Marius sitting among the ruins of Carthage." Not knowing where to go, without encountering an enemy, he spent the winter at sea; and in this situation, being informed of the successful activity of Cinna, he, with his son, hastened to join him. They soon entered the city, when Marius, after sating his vengeance, by destroying all, who were inimical to his interests, made himself consul with Cinna; and died the month after, at the age of seventy.

In the mean time, Sylla, after an absence of about three years, having procured an honorable peace, was preparing to return; previously informing the senate by letter, of the great services he had rendered the state, and adding a dreadful menace, that he would soon be at the gates of

Rome with a powerful army, to take signal revenge upon his own enemies, and those of the state. Cinna was, soon after, slain by a soldier, while quelling a mutiny; so that Sylla, upon his return, found no equal, but one after another, seduced, or destroyed, the armies sent against him. When resistance ceased, he entered the city, and immediately published, that those who expected pardon for their late offences, should gain it by destroying the enemies of the state. Great numbers thus perished, and nothing was to be found in every place, but menaces, distrust and treachery. Eight thousand who had escaped the general carnage, offered themselves to the conqueror at Rome, who ordered them to be confined in a large house, and there slain; while he, at the same time, convoked the senate, and harangued them with great fluency, upon his past exploits. He now gave orders, that the people should create a dictator, adding a request, that they would choose himself. This unlimited office he exercised three years, without control, and then, to the astonishment of all mankind, resigned it of his own accord. He retired to his country seat, where, for a short time, he wallowed in the most debasing voluptuousness, and soon died of a loathsome disease 78 B. C. in the 60th year of his age.]

The Romans, in the times of Scipio, may be compared with the Greeks in the time of Themistocles; and the triumph of Greece over Persia, with that of Rome over Carthage. In both cases, the conquerors were corrupted by wealth, and inebriated by luxury. We might go further and say, that the Peloponnesian war, which succeeded the elevation of Greece, and laid the foundation of her ruin, resembled the civil wars of Rome, begun by Marius and Sylla, carried on by Cesar and Pompey, and terminated by Augustus. But the firmness of the Roman character, the nature of their civil policy, and the immense extent of their conquests, enabled them still to be powerful, in spite of all their corruptions; and had they been otherwise, there seemed to be no nation near them, who could have derived advantage from their weakness. They seem to have been raised up and endowed with universal dominion, that they might evidence to the world, how far a nation can be happy, and how long she can exist, without virtue or freedom.

The ambition of the demagogues, as well as of the despots and tyrants of Rome, in one essential article, led them

to promote the true and just policy of the empire. That was to attach the provinces as strongly as possible to the interest of Rome; to dissolve them down to one common mass—to preserve their extensive territories entire; to cement them together by various alliances; and to preserve the empire undivided. The strength of empires consists in their union. The Greeks wanting this, soon failed; and, in our own times, Poland, which ought, from her numerous advantages, to have been one of the most powerful kingdoms in the world, has exhibited a deplorable spectacle of weakness and misery, by means of her internal divisions. Our own country had well nigh been swallowed up in the same gulf.

The Roman community, launched at once on such a sea of luxury, wealth and glory, was variously affected. While all were struggling for eminence and power, it fortunately happened, that the reins of government fell into strong and energetic hands. Of this description, generally speaking, were most of the first competitors, and of the triumvirates. The softening power of luxury, the sudden inundation of Grecian elegance and refinement, and the elevation of conscious greatness and empire, combined with her native gravity in forming the genius of Rome. About this period, it began to bud; soon after this, was its fairest bloom and richest maturity. If the genius of Rome was of a heavier mould than that of Greece, it possessed a more commanding gravity; if it had less fire, it was more tranquil, majestic and solemn; and more hearts will vibrate with pleasure to the plaintive and elegant notes of the Roman, than to the electric fulminations of the Grecian muse.*

In the year 78 B. C. the republic was freed from the tyranny of Sylla, by the death of that odious tyrant. But two men, of far more extensive views and refined ambition than either Marius or Sylla, were already prepared to run the same race. By various arts, as well as by great abilities, Cneius Pompey, surnamed, *the Great*, had become the most popular man in Rome, and was considered as the greatest commander in the republic. Crassus possessed that authority and influence, which great eloquence and immense wealth, combining with all the wiles of ambition, could procure. He was the richest man in Rome.

* Probably, this remark would not be correct, if the Greek language were as much read, as the Latin.—*Ed.*

While Pompey, who warmly espoused the Marian faction, strove to gain the favor of the people, by abrogating many of the tyrannical laws of Sylla, Crassus employed his amazing wealth in donations, distributions of corn among the poor, in public feasts and entertainments; and it is said, that he supported, at his own private expense, the greatest part of the citizens, for several months; expenditures sufficient to have exhausted the treasures of the greatest princes. In the progress of their contests for power, their animosities broke forth on every occasion, in opposition more or less direct, and by means more or less violent.

At this period, while the destinies of Rome seemed to hang in doubtful suspense, three characters appeared of very different complexions, but equally extraordinary, equally to be remembered, but with very different emotions in posterity; Catiline, Cicero and Cesar. One of these men procured for himself immortal fame by his atrocious villany; one, by his unrivalled eloquence; and one, by his ambition, bravery and good fortune.

Julius Cesar may be regarded as the greatest of the Roman commanders. In him the military genius of Rome displayed its utmost strength and perfection. But, as yet, he was not known in that group of great characters and personages, who, now inflamed with ambition, were preparing to carve and divide the world among them. Lucius Catiline is allowed by all writers to have possessed every quality of a great man, but integrity and virtue;* instead of which, he held every principle, and practised every vice, which could form a most infamous, atrocious and abandoned villain. Possessed of a body and mind equally strong and vigorous, he was bold, enterprising and industrious. He hesitated at no cruelty to gratify his revenge; he abstained from no crime, which could subserve his pleasures; he valued no labor or peril to gratify his ambition. Catiline perceiving himself not among the most favored rivals, who were courting the mistress of the world, determined on getting

* There is no more difficulty in conceiving, that a man may be great, without goodness, than that a mountain may be great, without beauty. If goodness is essential to greatness, then, neither Romulus, nor Themistocles, nor Brennus, nor Philip, nor Alexander, nor Hannibal, nor Marius, nor Mithridates, nor Cesar, nor Mahomet, nor Genghis Khan, nor Bajazet, nor Tamerlane, nor Solyman, nor Charles V., was a great man. If goodness is essential to greatness, then, to say of any great man, that he is good, must be superfluous.—*Ed.*

her into his possession by violence. His end was the same as theirs; but his means were more unwarrantable. He planned and organized one of the deepest, most extensive and daring conspiracies, recorded in history. The leading objects of his conspiracy were, to put out of the way by one general massacre, all who would be likely to oppose his measures; to pillage the city of Rome; to seize all public treasures, arsenals and stores; to establish a despotic government; to revolutionize the whole republic; and to accomplish all these measures by an armed force.

This sanguinary plot was detected and crushed by Cicero, the great and justly celebrated orator of Rome. The accomplices of Catiline were seized, and put to death; and Catiline himself, who had assembled an army of twelve thousand men, was encountered, defeated and slain.

But if Rome escaped this threatening gulf, it was, that she might fall into a snare, apparently less dreadful, but equally strong and conclusive as to her fate. Her days of virtue and glory were past. Henceforth, she was to be ruled with a rod of iron. The dissensions of Pompey and Crassus were quieted by the mediation of Cesar, who stepped in between them, outwitted them both, and became the head of the first triumvirate. Having amicably agreed to govern in copartnership, Pompey chose Spain; Crassus chose the rich and luxurious province of Asia; and to Cesar, were allotted the powerful and warlike nations of Gaul, as yet unconquered. What was the result? Pompey basked for a moment in the splendors of Rome; and his fame was trumpeted by the eloquence of Cicero. Crassus was slain by the Parthians, endeavoring to enlarge his territories; and Cesar conquered the Gauls in *a thousand battles*, Pompey could not bear an equal, nor Cesar a superior. They were mutually jealous; they differed; they prepared for war.

The senate and nobility of Rome, and pride and strength of Italy, sided with Pompey. Cesar relied wholly on those veteran legions, with whom he had subdued the fierce and martial tribes of Gaul and Germany. No other civil war ever equalled this. It was a melancholy sight to see Rome given up to tyranny and blood—to see that august and venerable republic forever abandoned to her evil genius. These were not the feeble bickerings of petty controversy, Marius and Sylla, the leaders of the former civil broils, bare little comparison with Cesar at the head of his legions,

or with the great Pompey, who could almost raise armies out of the earth by the *stamp of his foot*.

This eventful struggle was at length closed by the battle of Pharsalia, rendered truly famous by the grand object, for which they fought, the greatness of the force employed on either side, and by the transcendent reputation of both commanders. The Roman empire was the prize; and both the armies and the generals were the best the world could afford. Pompey was utterly defeated; and many of his army, won over by the magnanimous clemency and generosity of Cesar, were content to change sides. The conduct of Pompey in this battle, which was to decide his fate, has ever been considered strange and unaccountable. So far was he from displaying that courage, intrepidity and fortitude, and those powers of command, which he was supposed to possess, that, from the very first onset, he appeared like a man frightened out of his senses: he scarcely attempted to rally his men, was among the foremost that fled, and never made another effort to retrieve his cause. From facts so glaring, we are almost induced to believe, that much of Pompey's greatness, as a soldier and commander, consisted in the elegant drawings of Cicero, and other partial writers. The true test of bravery, skill and fortitude, is to see them displayed, where they are most necessary—to see them shine in danger, surmount difficulty, and triumph over adversity.

Yet no one can doubt that Pompey was a man of great and splendid talents. But who could equal Cesar? a man supreme in the whole extensive range of intellectual endowments. Nature seemed to have scanted him in nothing. Among philosophers, mathematicians, poets and orators, he could shine. He could plan and execute; he could negotiate or fight; he could gain and improve an advantage. For seven years in his Gallic wars, his life was a continual series of fatigues and dear-bought victories; and no general, but one as great as Cesar, could have encountered him without apprehension and dismay.

The battle of Pharsalia was fought 48 years before Christ, and 705 from the building of the city. Pompey fled an unhappy exile into Egypt, and was there miserably murdered by the command of Ptolemy. Thus the reins of government fell into the hands of Cesar; and he was left undisputed master of the world. The clemency of Cesar, on this occasion, was as illustrious, as his victories had been,

He entered into no measures against many persons, who, under professions of neutrality, had evidently sided with Pompey. He did nothing, which bore any resemblance to the horrid proscriptions of Marius and Sylla. He endeavored, in most instances, to forget and forgive.

But the reign and triumph of Julius Cesar were short. He soon fell a sacrifice to that spirit of freedom and independence, which had raised his country to her exalted rank; for, though the demons of discord, ambition and party rage, had now, for a long period, aimed all their shafts at good and virtuous men; though torrents of the richest blood had flowed incessantly for many years; yet some men were still left, whose constancy and virtue ever stemmed the strong current of the times. Cato and Cicero were still alive, whose stern virtues and commanding eloquence continued to remind the Romans of their better days.

From the battle of Pharsalia, to the death of Cesar, was four years. During this period, he went on, and prospered. By a rapid series of journeys and expeditions, he saw, awed and subjugated all places and all opposition. His arm pervaded, his vigilance detected, his spirit animated, his generosity won, and his power crushed, in all directions. His great and active genius seemed universally to bear down all before him; but in reality, not all. At length a plot was laid, as it were in his own bosom, which hurled him, in a moment, from the high summit, whither he had climbed.

Brutus and Cassius, at the head of about sixty senators, entered into a conspiracy, to take him off by assassination. Their object was to arrest the progress of despotic power; to restore the authority of the senate, and the ancient forms of the republic; an object laudable in itself, but, alas, how far from being practicable! Their plot was deeply laid, but seems to have been carried into effect, not without a wonderful concurrence of accident, or rather of providence. While Cesar was on his way to the senate-house, where he was to perish, a slave, it is said, who had discovered the conspiracy, pressed forward in the crowd, to apprise him of his danger; but could not get to him, for the press. Another person put into his hands a paper, which would have saved him, containing an account of the conspiracy. This he handed to his secretary, without breaking the seal. After he was seated in the senate-house, the conspirators approached, and despatched him with their daggers, w^h

out resistance; and retired to the capitol, where they put themselves in a state of defence.

Thus fell the first and doubtless the greatest of the Cesars, in the 56th year of his age, and in the fourth of his sole administration. No Roman ever achieved more arduous enterprises, than he. He rose to supreme power, in opposition to men of great abilities, and of much greater resources than himself. Whatever standing he acquired, he maintained; and his enemies could only destroy him by treachery under the mask of friendship. Rome did not owe to Cesar the loss of her liberties; they were lost before he was born. He was allured to seize the dazzling prize, which, to all observers, had evidently become the sport of fortune, and was liable to be grasped by him, who was boldest and most lucky. Had Pompey prevailed over Cesar, it is doubtful, whether Rome would have experienced a happier destiny.

The fall of Cesar seemed only to accelerate the establishment of imperial government. Octavius, the grand nephew of Cesar, and heir, by will, to his fortunes and name, was soon at the head of a new triumvirate, viz. himself, Mark Antony and Lepidus. This new triumvirate, proclaiming themselves the avengers of Cesar, now hastened to make war upon the conspirators, whose army was headed by Brutus and Cassius. Had the Roman people desired their ancient liberty, which they certainly would, had they understood the import of the word, or had they entertained any just notions of freedom, they now enjoyed an opportunity of regaining it. But so far from that, the triumvirate were able to excite the popular indignation against the conspirators, and, in fact, gained the people over to their cause. The standard of liberty was deserted; and the wretched, infatuated people were now employed in rivetting those chains, which were never more to be broken.

The conspirators were crushed with little trouble; and in shedding the blood of the last patriots of Rome, the sublime Cicero fell a victim to the merciless rage of Antony, and the base and cruel policy of Octavius.

It soon appeared that the triumvirs had combined with no other view, than as a present expedient, which was to be laid aside when occasion should offer. Accordingly Lepidus was soon rejected; and as he was neither a soldier nor a statesman, he had no means of redress. Antony and Octavius presently differed, and once more marshalled the

forces of that mighty people under their hostile standards. Their quarrel was decided at the battle of Actium; a short time after which, Antony expired in Egypt, and left Octavius without a competitor.

In the 31st year before Christ, and 722nd from the building of Rome, commenced the imperial reign of Octavius, under the titles of Emperor and Augustus. Rome now became an empire in the more strict and proper sense of the word; and, notwithstanding the degeneracy of the Roman people, it continued for several centuries to be the most powerful empire in the ancient world.

The commotions and wars, the luxury and wealth, the corruptions and loss of public virtue among the Romans, did not extinguish, but rather called forth and perfected their genius for literature. The sciences were assiduously cultivated; and men of learning received the warmest patronage and the amplest encouragement from those great and opulent men, whose wealth was immense, and whose traffic was in states and kingdoms. Indeed, many of those great men were themselves the favorites of the muses.

They studied the liberal sciences and elegant arts with a diligence scarcely known in modern times. Scipio Africanus, according to the testimony of Cicero, was as eminent for mental improvement, as he was in the art of war. Cato was a man of great learning and wisdom; and those great men who composed the two triumvirates, especially the first, were highly accomplished in the liberal sciences.

When we consider, that Cicero was a professional man; that for a course of years, many of the most important causes in the vast republic were ably managed by him; that he was a statesman and a great leader in the politics of his time; that he was, at times, a civil magistrate, a soldier and a governor, and patron of provinces, we may truly be astonished at the extent and success of his studies. His voluminous writings, which have come down to us, and which form the most perfect standard of classic excellence, leave us in doubt, which to set foremost, the strength of his understanding, or the powers of his imagination; or which we shall admire most, his genius or industry. It is no partial admiration, by which those writings are preserved. The united voice of all enlightened nations has declared their merit, and judged them worthy of immortality.

The same may be said of the writings of Virgil and Horace, and many others. But the approbation of men of

taste and learning, in all nations, has set the literary productions of the Augustan age above all panegyric. They will be read and admired as long as works of genius and taste are held in estimation.

The Roman empire now appeared in its utmost splendor. Though less virtuous and happy, and probably less powerful, than in former periods, yet the concentrated wealth of the world, the external pomp of so vast a monarchy, threw round her a dazzling glory, which the most distant nations beheld with admiration and dread. Ambassadors from remote kingdoms daily arrived, to do homage, to court alliance, or solicit protection.

Augustus held the reins of government; there was no competitor—no rival. The people, long fatigued with war, were glad to enjoy peace, though under the reign of a despot. There was no Brutus nor Cassius to conspire, or to assassinate. Cato was no more; and Cicero, one of the last luminaries of Rome, had been murdered, and his head and hands cut off and fixed upon the tribunal, where the thunders of his eloquence had so often struck terror to the hearts of tyrants. The spirit which animated the Romans in the days of Fabricius, was gone forever. Liberty had taken her flight from the earth, or had retired to the sequestered bower of the savage, while gorgeous pride lifted her head to heaven, and trampled on innocence, equity and law.

Augustus was an artful, insidious tyrant. While one of the triumvirate, he had been careful to destroy all the virtuous men, who had escaped the bloody proscriptions, the civil wars, and the violent commotions, which were before his time. When his power was confirmed, he endeavored to fascinate the people; to lull them into security; to inebriate them with luxury; to dazzle them with his pomp and glory; and by all possible means to extinguish in them, the true Roman spirit, and so to qualify and sweeten slavery itself, as to cause them to drink it down with a pleasing relish. He succeeded; for never was a people more changed in temper, habit, mode of thinking, and national character.

But detraction itself cannot deny, that Augustus was a general, a statesman, and a very great man. Though void of the magnanimous spirit of Cincinnatus, Brutus and Regulus, yet he affected to revere the character of the ancient Romans, and seemed desirous that a semblance of freedom



Death of Cesar.



The Hegira, or Flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina.

should still mark the character of his countrymen. When he saw himself in the undisturbed possession of empire, the severities of his administration relaxed; and he held the reins of government with lenity, dignity and wisdom. Few monarchs have enjoyed a longer or more prosperous reign. His genius was less warlike, than that of Julius Cesar; yet in the course of his reign, he had various opportunities of showing himself capable of commanding armies, and of directing very extensive military operations. But his greatness was of the tranquil and pacific kind, and he showed little ambition to enlarge his dominions.

The reign of Augustus was active, energetic and long. It was his boast, that he found Rome built of brick; but that he left it built of marble.

In the 31st* year of the reign of Augustus, *Jesus Christ*, the Son of *God*, was born. The principal nations of the known world being reduced under one head, and wars and commotions, revolving through long tracts of time, now terminating in one immense dominion, the troubled elements of human society sunk into a universal calm. Thirst for conquest was satiated with blood; the ambition of one was gratified, while that of millions was left without hope. The spirit of war, wearied with universal and almost perpetual carnage, seemed willing to enjoy a moment's slumber, or was hushed to silence by the advent of the Prince of peace.

Jesus Christ was the son of David, the son of Abraham. The house of Jacob seems to have been preserved in order to give birth to this wonderful personage. Abraham was born 1996 years before *Christ*, and was the ninth in direct descent from Noah, who is commonly reckoned the tenth generation from Adam. Abraham flourished about the time

* It is in the highest degree probable, that *Christ* was born four years sooner, than the date generally assigned; and therefore, that he was born in the 27th year of Augustus. This is the general opinion of the learned. It is therefore supposed, that in A. D. 1, according to the vulgar era, *Jesus* was really four years old. This mistake with regard to the true time of our Saviour's incarnation, arose from the circumstance, that the Christian era was not used in chronology till A. D. 527 or 532. In that year, it was adopted by Dionysius the Little, who appears to have made a mistake of four years in his calculation, which was not discovered, till more than 600 years afterward, when it would have been extremely difficult, if not impossible, to change the vulgar era for the true one. Besides, the learned are not *universally* agreed with regard to the year of the incarnation; whether it was 4 or 2 years, before the vulgar era.—*Ed.*

of Xerxes or Balæus, king of Assyria, and about 200 years before Ægialius founded the oldest of the states of Greece. Jacob, the grandson of Abraham, removed his family, consisting of about 60 persons, and his effects, into Egypt, where his posterity remained and increased astonishingly, for more than two centuries.

Moses, the Hebrew general and lawgiver, led the Israelites out of Egypt soon after the reign of Sesostris, or
 B. C. in the reign of Pharaoh Amenophis, who was drown-
 1491. ed in the Red Sea. The Israelites settled in Canaan about the time of the foundation of the first states of Greece, and about the time of the foundation of Carthage, as already stated. Eleven centuries before the birth of Christ, the form of the Hebrew government was changed from a kind of aristocratical republic, or, as it is frequently called by theological writers, a *theocracy*, to an absolute monarchy; and Saul was elevated to the throne.

In the year 975 before Christ, the ten tribes revolted from the house of David, and set up a separate kingdom, which continued 215 years, and was then subdued, and carried into captivity, by Shalmanezar, king of Assyria, before Christ 754. The kingdom of Judah was governed by the house of David till the year before Christ 588, making, from the accession of Saul, 507 years; when Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, invaded and conquered Judea, and carried the Jews to Babylon; where they remained in captivity 70 years.

In the first year of the reign of Cyrus, king of Persia, 536 years before Christ, the Jews, by a royal edict from the Persian monarch, were liberated, and sent home to their own land. They were under a nominal subjection to Persia, till that kingdom was overturned by Alexander. They then fell to the Syrian empire, and suffered much from the tyranny and impositions of the dynasty of Antiochus, till the Syrians failed before the power of Rome. They were frequently visited by the Greek and Roman generals; but their existence, together with their temple and worship, were prolonged, till twenty years after Christ; when Titus Vespasian destroyed Jerusalem, together with upwards of a million of the Jews. The remnant of them were scattered into all nations; and what is remarkable in their history, they still exist, after eighteen centuries, and are distinct from all other nations, persevering in the religion of their ancestors.

God had promised to Abraham, that in his seed, all nations should be blessed. This glorious promise began to be verified, when God, by his marvellous interposition, redeemed the house of Israel out of Egypt, and gave them an exhibition of his character, in a code of laws, which comprised a perfect standard of moral rectitude. But it was more amply verified, when the Son of God appeared in the world, and, by his life, doctrines, death and resurrection, fulfilled the predictions and illuminated the shadows of the Mosaic dispensation, and opened the way for the promulgation of the gospel through the world.

That Jesus Christ was a divine person, sent of God, to enlighten and redeem the world, seems to rest on two important pillars of evidence, either of which would be sufficient to give it independent support. These are, 1st, credible testimony; and 2nd, the superior excellency of that religion, which he taught and practised. The truth of the gospel rests on the fullest testimony, and of that character and kind, which mankind have never questioned; and as to the excellency of the religion of Jesus Christ, let unbelievers deny it if they can, or if they dare. If they dare pretend that justice, integrity, benevolence and virtue, are unlovely, and ought not to be practised by men, or if they can deny, that these, and these only, are what the gospel requires, then they can also deny, that the gospel holds up a perfect rule of life, and then may they pretend, that it ought not to be practised by men.

The testimony, on which the Christian religion chiefly relies, respects and substantiates the following things;

1. The genealogy or true descent of Christ from David;
2. The life and character of Christ;
3. His doctrines;
4. His miracles;
5. His resurrection. To all these things, there is the most full and perfect testimony.

The excellency of the Christian religion appears in the following articles;

1. The character of God;
2. The character of man;
3. What God requires of man; (Thus far the gospel fully establishes the law of Moses. But it goes farther.)
4. The method of pardon, through the atonement of Christ;
5. The constitution and character of Christ's church;

6. The resurrection of the dead ;
7. The rewards and punishments of a future state.

In general, it may be said, that the gospel requires nothing of mankind, but what is for their good ; and it forbids nothing but what is injurious. A man conforming to all the requirements of Christianity would be perfect ; he would be without a fault. Whatever, therefore, may have been the origin of the scheme, nothing more, nothing better, could be looked for, in one which was known to be divine. Those, who would wish to pursue these inquiries, and examine duly a subject of such vast importance, are recommended to read Paley's "Evidence of Christianity."

The reign of Augustus, if we include his twelve years with the triumvirate, was 56 years. No emperor of Rome displayed greater penetration, or more extensive and profound policy ; and few men could have succeeded so far in undermining and abolishing the power of the senate, and in changing the nature, yet preserving the forms of the ancient government. The central point of all his movements and aims, was to extinguish the republican spirit, and to render monarchy strong and permanent ; and this he did so effectually, that the Romans, ever after, tamely submitted to slavery, and for the most part, under the fangs of a set of infamous monsters, as notorious for weakness and folly, as for pride and cruelty.

It would be useless, in this compend, to mention particularly the lives and characters of the immediate successors of Augustus. In the most important respects they are alike, only that each one, according to his time and talents, generally added to the vices and villanies of his predecessors.

Tiberius, the son-in-law and successor of Augustus, reigned 23 years. An elegant historian has said, that he was "a monster of perfidy, ingratitude and cruelty." To him, succeeded Caius Caligula, who reigned only four years, and "whose life," says the same author, "was a continued scene of debauchery, much worse than that of his predecessor."

Caligula was succeeded by Claudius, his uncle, who was little better than an enfeebled, inconsistent, vicious idiot ; at first promising to do well, but speedily falling into every outrage and atrocity. He reigned 14 years.

Nero was the first of the emperors, under whose administration the empire was generally dishonored, and the

Roman name treated with ignominy and contempt. Had it not been for the conduct pursued by some of his successors, it might have been thought, that nothing could equal his folly and madness, or the astonishing crimes he perpetrated against humanity, reason and nature. Almost every act of the life of Nero was an outrageous, horrid crime. He murdered many of the noblest citizens of Rome; among whom, the celebrated Seneca fell a sacrifice, and several other philosophers and writers of great distinction. He murdered his wife and his mother, and set fire to the city of Rome, and while it was burning, dressing himself in the garb of a player, he recited some verses on the destruction of Troy.

Nero proceeded to such lengths, as at last to become an object of terror and detestation to mankind. The senate declared him an enemy to his country; the army revolted; and people of every description combined to crush a detestable wretch, whom the earth could no longer bear. Nero reigned almost 14 years; and in him the family of Augustus became extinct, 55 years after the death of that emperor.

Galba, Otho and Vitellius arose one after another, and fell in quick succession, all disappearing in the short space of eighteen months. They assumed the imperial purple, only to disgrace the throne, to give innumerable wounds to the empire, and to attach perpetual infamy to their memory.

If we except the horrors of the cruel reign of Domitian, the younger brother of Titus, Rome was now favored with seven monarchs in succession, whose virtues adorned the throne, and whose energy and wisdom restored and invigorated the empire.

Vespasian succeeded Vitellius in the 70th year of the Christian era; and, in a prosperous reign of nine years, restored the Roman name to its ancient splendor. He recovered several provinces, repelled all invasions, restored order, harmony and military discipline, and, in fact, extended the bounds of the empire. Titus, his son and successor, was a prince of great virtue. His excellent endowments and elegant accomplishments rendered him exceedingly dear to his subjects. In his reign,* Jerusalem was destroyed. This prince, in a short reign of two years, displayed a degree of wisdom, moderation and self-command, which, perhaps, no other Roman emperor ever attained. The

* Jerusalem was taken and destroyed by Titus, during the reign of his father Vespasian.—*Ed.*

happiness of his people was regarded by him as the greatest glory of his reign. During this reign, happened that eruption of Mount Vesuvius, in which Pliny, the celebrated philosopher, was destroyed.

Titus was succeeded by Domitian, his younger brother, whose vices and cruelties were surpassed by none of his predecessors. After him, followed five princes in succession, whose names will ever adorn the history of Rome. They were Nerva, Trajan, Adrian, Antoninus Pius and Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. These great men swayed the sceptre for about eighty years. They did whatever could be expected from the greatest of men and of princes, in rendering the administration just, energetic and wise, and in making their subjects happy. But if the Roman people, even in the times of Augustus, had fallen from their ancient glory and virtue, if they had lost that greatness and independence of mind, which raised the republic to conquest and renown, what now must have been their state, after being prostrated, and degraded for a century by the worst of government.

CHAPTER XIV.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE ROMAN HISTORY, FROM THE ACCESSION OF AUGUSTUS TO THE DEATH OF MARCUS AURELIUS.

THE period now before us contains about 210 years, viz. from the accession of Augustus, to that of Commodus. Concerning this period, we shall note a few things; and

1. The Roman empire, during this period, contained the middle and southern parts of Europe, the northern parts of Africa, and the western parts of Asia. In the directions and advice of Augustus to his successor, it was warmly recommended, that the empire should not be enlarged. Accordingly, the weak and effeminate emperors had no inclination nor ability to do it; and the valiant and warlike generally found business enough in defending what they already had; while the wise and prudent were sensibly impressed with the propriety of the advice of Augustus. The empire was, indeed, of vast extent; and, if we cast our eyes upon a map, we shall directly see, that it compre-

hended, as an elegant historian remarks, "the fairest part of the earth, and the most civilized portion of mankind."*

During this period, however, very considerable additions were made to the empire, and I believe, more or less, in the three quarters of the globe. In Europe the Gallic and German provinces were enlarged, the island of Great Britain was subdued, and several large countries on this side and beyond the Danube, as Illyricum, Dacia, Pannonia, &c. The emperor Trajan, in order to prosecute the war with the Dacians, erected a stupendous bridge across the Danube; the ruins of which remain to this day, and afford a sublime specimen of ancient architecture.

2. The cruelty, depravity, folly and enormous vices of the emperors generally, form a striking feature in this period. They seem to have been utterly lost to all sense of justice, honor and duty. Had they followed the examples of Julius or Augustus Cesar, the Romans would scarcely have had reason to regret the establishment of a form of government, which rescued them from deplorable wars and wasting revolutions, urged on by the rage of various powerful parties, succeeding one another. Indeed it is surprising, that the illustrious examples of those great men should be deserted immediately, and so soon forgotten; and it can be accounted for in no other way, than by supposing, that the reins of government fell into the weakest and vilest of hands. When we consider the advantages the first emperors of Rome possessed, it can scarcely be doubted that many of them were the lowest, the most detestable and abandoned villains, that ever swayed a sceptre. Nor can we read the history of Rome, without wondering, how it was possible for that once powerful and magnanimous people, to be so sunk and depraved, as to endure the tyranny of such monsters, instead of hurling them, with indignant scorn, from the throne they so deeply disgraced.

3. If the fate of Poland, in our own times, stands as a beacon, exhibiting to the nations of the earth, a dreadful testimony of the effects of bad government; we may certainly derive a still stronger testimony from this period of the Roman history. The wars of Marius and Sylla, of Cesar and Pompey, and of Augustus and Antony, had

* Though Gibbon has some excellences besides his "elegance," the young reader must be cautious not to imbibe his stiffness, his affectation, and especially, his obscurity.—*Ed.*

demonstrated the power of individuals to enslave the state. Those wars had almost exterminated the ancient Romans; had extinguished almost all the great and eminent families, and quite all the great men, who dared to speak and act like Romans. At the same time, an immense multitude of foreigners from all parts of the world, poured into Rome; and the army, which always governed Rome, was composed of a mercenary, rapacious crew, as void of public spirit, as of all sense of justice and honor. An empire, governed by a prince as profligate and abandoned, as he was weak and ignorant, and who was merely the tool of a mutinous, ill-disciplined and vicious soldiery, must certainly experience the worst of governments, and must feel their worst effects. Accordingly, the lustre of Rome faded; her power decayed; her virtue and happiness were forever lost; and she was abandoned to every evil and calamity.

From various internal causes, the strength of the Roman empire declined greatly, during the two first centuries of the Christian era. She was not only absolutely but comparatively weaker. Many of the Asiatic provinces seemed only to observe a nominal subjection; and the Parthians, especially, gained strength, rose and triumphed, and set Rome at defiance. The nations of Gaul and Germany grew strong, and often showed signs of revolt, and even indications, that they were one day to trample upon the ashes of their conquerors.

4. The Romans soon gave melancholy proofs of the decay of learning, as well as of civility and politeness. We have spoken of the deplorable fate of Cicero. Augustus, under the infamous pretence of appeasing the resentment of Mark Antony, had murdered and mangled that great man. The crafty tyrant well knew, how necessary it was for him to silence that eloquence, which must have shaken his throne, and exterminate that virtue, which must have thrown continual embarrassments in the way of his ambitious schemes. Mæcenas, the great friend of Virgil and Horace, still lived; but he only lived as a flatterer, to form new modes of adulation, and to act the cringing parasite.

In the course of the reign of the twelve Cesars, the Roman horizon, which had been once illuminated with one immense constellation of poets, orators, philosophers, statesmen, heroes and sages, was left in dreary darkness. And if we descend to the reign of Commodus, we shall see

few lights on that once splendid horizon, but such as most resembled the horrid glare of Tartarean fires.

————— “From those flames
No light, but rather darkness visible
Serv'd only to discover sights of wo!”

Yet the names of Seneca, Lucian, Pliny, Josephus, Quintilian, Tacitus, Juvenal, Plutarch, Justin and Galen, were scattered down this tract of time; long after which, Longinus flourished; and Marcus Aurelius, the emperor, was a great philosopher, and an ornament to the republic of letters.

5. It will be proper in this place, to notice to the young reader, the nature and form of the Roman legion, a military establishment and grand instrument of the Roman power, by which Rome conquered and governed the world. It had been improving through every period of the republic, and was still farther improved by Julius Cesar and some of his successors.

The main strength of the legion consisted in a body of infantry, divided into ten cohorts and fifty-five companies, which companies were more or less full. Each cohort was commanded by a prefect or tribune; and each company, by a centurion. The first cohort, which always claimed the post of honor and carried the eagle, contained 1105 soldiers, the most approved for bravery and fidelity. The remaining cohorts consisted each of 555; and the infantry of a legion, in its most improved state, amounted to 6,100 men. Their arms, which were uniform, consisted of a helmet with a lofty crest, a breast-plate or coat of mail, greaves on their legs, and on their left arm a concave buckler, of an oval form, four feet in length and two and a half in breadth. This buckler was formed of light wood, covered with bull's hide, and strengthened with plates of brass. The *pilum*, a long and heavy spear, was the most effective of the Roman weapons. With this they usually conquered. It was about six feet long, and terminated in a triangular point of steel, eighteen inches in length. This dreadful javelin, when 'launched from the vigor of a Roman arm,' often pierced helmets, breast-plates and bucklers; nor was there any cavalry, that chose to venture within its reach. When the *pilum* was thrown, which was commonly within the distance of ten or even six yards, the soldier drew his sword, and closed with the enemy. The sword was a two-edged, short,

well tempered blade, fitted to strike or push; the latter of which the Romans were instructed to prefer.

The legion, in battle array, stood eight deep, preserving the distance of three feet between both the ranks and files; so that each one had a sufficient space to move and wield his arms in; and this loose order gave great celerity to their movements. It is remarked, perhaps justly, by Mr. Gibbon, that "the strength of the phalanx was unable to contend with the activity of the legion." But could the phalanx of Alexander have contended with the legion of Julius Cesar, each under the eye and animated by the spirit of those great commanders, a different conclusion perhaps might be drawn.

A body of cavalry, consisting of ten troops or squadrons, was an essential appendage of each legion. The first troop of horse was the companion of the first cohort, and consisted of 132 men. The other nine consisted each of 66 men, and were attached to the remaining nine cohorts. The cavalry of a complete legion amounted to 726 men. Their defensive arms were a helmet, an oblong shield, light boots and a coat of mail. Their effective weapons were a javelin and a long broadsword.

Thus the regular infantry and cavalry of a legion amounted to 6,826 men; besides which, several light armed troops, called auxiliaries, were attached to it, which, together with all the various attendants for baggage, &c. swelled each legion to upwards of 12,000 men. To every legion, was assigned ten engines of the larger size, and fifty-five of the smaller, for throwing large stones and heavy darts. The force of these engines was such, as to produce astonishing effects on walls and towers, and they are thought by some writers of note to have been little inferior to cannon.

The camp of two complete legions usually occupied an exact square of nearly 700 yards on each side. This spot was levelled by the pioneers, and the tents were then pitched in the form of regular, broad streets, the prætorium or general's quarters in the centre. The whole square was then surrounded by a rampart 12 feet high, compactly formed of wood and earth, and also enclosed by a ditch 12 feet broad and deep. When this camp was to be left, it is incredible how soon the legions would be in motion. Their tents being struck and packed, each legionary loaded himself with his arms, kitchen furniture and provisions, sometimes for many days; and, with this weight, which, says

Mr. Gibbon, would oppress the delicacy of a modern soldier, they would march, by a regular step, 20 miles in six hours.

The military discipline of the Romans was exceedingly strict. They were accustomed to various athletic exercises; and their armor in running and leaping, was scarcely considered as an incumbrance. Such were some of the military arrangements of the Romans. In order to form some idea of their armed force, it may be observed, that the peace establishment of Adrian and his successors consisted of thirty of these formidable legions, which were usually stationed on the banks of large rivers, and along the frontiers of their extensive dominions. The author just cited says, that under the emperors, the legions were more or less permanently stationed, as follows, viz. *three* legions in Britain; *sixteen* on the Rhine and Danube, where it was early discovered, that most force was necessary; *eight* on the Euphrates; and in Egypt, Africa and Spain, a single legion was sufficient for each. Besides all these, a powerful armed force was always stationed in Italy, to watch over the safety of the capital, and of the emperor. These were called city cohorts and pretorian guards; and we shall see hereafter, that these troops were principally instrumental in the ruin of the empire.

6. The last thing we shall notice, as making a conspicuous figure in this period of Roman history, is the rapid spread and persecutions of Christianity.

The Christian religion was peculiar in its origin. It was equally so as to the means, by which it was propagated in the world. The primitive Christians utterly disclaimed the use of arms, as a means of spreading their principles. They relied on the nature of the truths and maxims they taught, on the purity of their lives—the meek, quiet and blameless conduct of their followers; but more on the power and providence of God, for their support, prosperity, defence and promulgation. And in this, they were not disappointed; for at the close of the second century after Christ, Christianity had penetrated almost every part of the Roman empire. They had churches established in various parts of Asia and Africa; in Greece, Italy, Spain, Gaul, Germany and Britain.

As professed enemies to the gods of Greece and Rome, and as directly opposed to the superstition of the countries, in which they lived, they were generally without the

protection of law, and odious to the reigning authorities. Under several of the emperors already mentioned, their sufferings were very great. They were subjected to every abuse, and were, in vast multitudes, put to death, with the most dreadful tortures. During Nero's bloody reign, they experienced every species of cruelty; and even under the reputedly wise and virtuous Antonines, as well as Trajan and Adrian, multitudes of them fell a sacrifice to the merciless fury of persecution.

CHAPTER XV.

BRIEF HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE, FROM THE REIGN OF COMMODUS TO THE EXTINCTION OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE, UNDER AUGUSTULUS; CONTAINING A PERIOD OF TWO-HUNDRED AND EIGHTY-THREE YEARS.

WE have now passed the fortunate and happy periods of the Roman empire. In the subsequent part of the history of this great people, there is little to contemplate, but the most deadly disorders, the most agonizing struggles, and the deepest and most ostensible decay. But an empire containing a hundred and twenty millions of people, founded in power, wealth and policy, strengthened by every auxiliary of human greatness, triumphing over all enemies, and elevated almost beyond the reach of invasion, could only perish by the gradual progress of internal disorder. The misfortunes of Rome sprung from her own bosom; and it can scarcely be said, that she had enemies, till she had formed and trained them to the arts of war.

In the 180th year of the Christian era, Commodus ascended the throne. No reign was ever more inauspicious than his; nor is the memory of any prince more deeply covered with infamy. He formed a perfect contrast to the virtues of his illustrious father, Marcus Aurelius. It would be impossible, in this Compend, to draw a character more black, detestable and depraved, than that of Commodus. A detail of his vices would occupy more pages, than we can allow to the whole period, which is to be the subject of this chapter. We can say little more, than that, during his reign, the administration of government was totally abandoned; and the numerous props of a falling empire,

which had existed a century before this, were now no more. At the seat of government, there was nothing but luxury, riot and murder. In the provinces, extreme disorder, rapacity, misery and revolt prevailed. On the frontiers, the burning of cities and the blood of thousands marked the footsteps of invasion. In Italy, disaffection, conspiracy, jealousy, terror, detestation, revenge, fury and despair, surrounded the throne—filled the capital—inspired every heart, and painted destruction in every face. In the army, there was licentiousness, outrage, mutiny and desertion. The soldiers, in multitudes, forsook their standards, and in numberless and fierce banditti, infested the highways. The redress of wrongs and the recovery of rights, expired with civil justice; and while the empire felt those strong but vain struggles, which were occasioned by the re-action of her natural force, her union, power and military reputation vanished, and left her an immense chaos of discordant principles.

An illustrious parentage gave high expectations of Commodus; but his conduct soon banished all hopes. He exhibited cruelties, at which even Nero would have shuddered; and he was more effeminate than Sardanapalus. It seems a pity for the honor of humanity, that the name of so infamous a monster should have been preserved. His feeble and licentious reign produced calamities to his country, after his vices had destroyed him, and he was no more. He was no sooner taken off by conspiracy, conducted by his favorite mistress, than the choice of the army and senate clothed with the imperial purple, Helvetius Pertinax. He was above 60 years of age; had served under the illustrious Antonines; and was always noted equally for bravery and wisdom. He had risen from a private soldier, through all the grades of military honor, to that of pretorian prefect. With modesty and reluctance, he assumed the diadem, which he was destined to wear, and to grace, only long enough to demonstrate his merit, and to enrol his name among the most excellent of the Roman emperors.

If the degenerate Romans discovered their mistake, in elevating to the throne, a man whose administration was utterly repugnant to their wishes, he much sooner discovered his, in thinking it possible to renovate the empire, now going rapidly into an irrecoverable decline. The Roman armies, which under the Scipios, had subdued Africa and Asia, which under Cesar had extended the

empire beyond the Danube, and which under Trajan had conquered beyond the Euphrates, were now the scorn and ridicule of the barbarians. Through a total want of discipline, all subordination was lost—all military spirit; nothing remained but discord, sedition and outrage. Pertinax commenced an administration, vigorous, systematic and comprehensive. The empire, throughout her wide regions, felt his power, and saw and revered the equity, which marked all his movements. It was soon perceived, that Pertinax would aim to suppress those irregularities, and restore the discipline of the army to its ancient severity; that he would revive the institutions of civil justice; and retrieve the fallen dignity of the Roman name. But alas! his noble intentions and excellent schemes could not be effectuated by mortal prowess; the nation was too far gone—too deeply sunk in vice and luxury. The palace, the court, and the capitol were filled and surrounded with a swarm of execrable villains, whom the vices of Commodus had rendered necessary, whom his weakness had imboldened, and the corruption of the times had furnished in abundance. His first care was to displace these, to exalt men to power, who were worthy to rule; and to restrain and punish the insolence of the pretorian guards.

He had just entered on this salutary but arduous work, when he was informed one day, that a mutiny was rising in the army. He had only time to walk to the gate of his palace, when he perceived a large body of soldiers rapidly advancing with angry clamors and menacing imprecations. As they drew near, he stood his ground, and with a firm dignity, demanded their business. Without making any reply, a Scythian soldier struck him dead at a blow. His head was severed from his body, and carried on a pole to the camp; where, immediately after, the empire was offered at public sale to the highest bidder. It was bid off by a sordid wretch, who assumed the purple, but who, in a few days, suffered all the severities of the fate of Pertinax, without any of the pity and regret, which will follow the memory of that great man to the latest posterity.

It is matter of regret, that so little is known of Pertinax, that so few circumstances have escaped oblivion, which would most clearly elucidate his private character; and especially that so short a time was allowed him for displaying the energy of command, the wisdom of legislation and the greatness of man. Historians, however, unite in

allowing him to rank with the most worthy men, who ever governed Rome. His energy was guided by justice; his authority was tempered with sweetness; and all his super-eminent qualities combined to form a character truly great and amiable.

Were it safe, however, at this distance of time, one might conjecture, that he was too severe and hasty in his first essays at reformation. Had he, by some politic and impenetrable movement, contrived to separate, and remove to a distance, his licentious soldiery, till he could have levied and disciplined an army to his mind, perhaps he might have enjoyed a longer and more fortunate reign. But what power can renovate a nation totally effeminate and corrupt? Pertinax, by his abilities and address, ascended from the lowest to the highest rank among men. His reverses were so numerous, great and sudden, that historians have given him the peculiar appellation of *the tennis ball of fortune*.

From the death of Pertinax till that of Augustulus, the last of the Roman emperors of the West, was 282 years, during which time, no less than fifty-six emperors swayed the sceptre in succession. Their names may be seen in the tables subjoined; and for an account of their vices, (for little more is recorded of them,) the reader must be referred to the history of the decline of the Roman empire; on which part of history, Gibbon is the ablest and most elegant writer in our language.

The artful and insidious endeavors of that writer to subvert Christianity, and to substitute, no one knows what, in its place, are obvious to every reader. Yet his merit as a writer cannot be questioned; and although his opposition to Christianity, betrayed him into many gross absurdities suited to the complexion of his prejudices, yet his history of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, is one of the noblest of historical productions.

So much has been already said concerning the decline of the Roman empire, that the young reader may be surprised, when he understands, that it stood upwards of two centuries after this period. But that empire could only die a lingering death. West of it, lay the Atlantic ocean; south, lay Africa, which, since the fall of Carthage, was without power; east, lay Asia, dissolved in luxury, always ready to be conquered, as soon as attacked, and enslaved as soon as invaded; and so far from subduing Rome, that people were

even too effeminate to maintain a form of government over themselves.

The barbarous nations, which lay north of the empire, were indeed numerous and warlike; but they could not subdue the Romans, till they had learned of them the art of war. And the power of Rome, under the emperors, lay chiefly in the northern provinces, where it was most needed. As we have already said, sixteen or twenty legions generally lay bordering upon the Rhine and Danube. The barbarians, in these times, were generally poorly clothed and fed, and had few arms, and little knowledge of the art of war. Their invasions were like those of a hungry lion, whom fierce appetite impels to rush on the point of the spear, in order to seize his prey; and their chief difficulty was want of union. Their tribes were composed of warlike, fierce, impetuous spirits; but they were unsettled, barbarous, roving, independent, and jealous of the power of their chiefs, as well as tenacious of the honor of their tribes.

Yet the nations composing the Northern Hive,* could not but experience a gradual improvement. Their proximity to a great and enlightened people, with whom they were at perpetual war, their strength of body, their intellectual vigor, and ambition to acquire those arts, which had so long rendered the Romans invincible, must, in time, have produced their natural and unavoidable effects. In the barbarian armies and countries, there must have been a multitude of Romans. Numbers, having fled from justice, or induced to rove, from disgust at their own capricious and tyrannical government, would naturally seek an asylum in the wilds of Europe, and among a more free and equitable people. Numbers being detained there would, at length, yield to necessity, and voluntarily remain in a land, whither they had been dragged as captives, assimilating by degrees to its customs and habits.

The Gauls and Germans, from the period now before us, composed the strength of the Roman armies; and great

* The northern parts of Europe and Asia are sometimes called the *Northern Hive*, from the vast swarms of barbarians, who, from time to time, have issued from those regions, to desolate the world. Some have supposed these regions to have been anciently crowded with inhabitants. But the opinion of Robertson is much more rational, that those regions were anciently less populous than at present; though at present, they are less populous, than other parts of the continent.—*Ed.*

numbers of these nations, whom we shall indiscriminately call the Goths and Vandals and Huns, were now admitted into the Roman service, either as legionaries or auxiliaries. Some of them were promoted to the highest stations, both civil and military, and even wore the imperial diadem and purple. Many of these, either never had, or else lost, all attachment to Rome; and, rejoining their countrymen, carried and diffused among them, the arts of war, and advantages of disciplined valor.

From the reign of Commodus, to the extinction of the Western Empire, history presents one uniform scene of disorder, vice and misery. We have almost constantly before our eyes, a great empire going rapidly to destruction under the influence of bad government. A very few of the emperors, however, during this dreary period, were both able statesmen and commanders. Had it been their fortune to have reigned in happier times, and over a more virtuous people, their administrations would have done more important service to mankind. But their best measures and greatest exertions, seemed only to have the effect of medicines given to the sick man, after his disease has become incurable. They might a little procrastinate, but could not prevent, the moment of dissolution.

About the year of Christ 267, the emperor Valerian was taken prisoner by the Persians, when no less than nineteen persons in various parts of the empire assumed the imperial purple, with the titles of Cesar, and Augustus; and each of them endeavored to support his claims and titles by the sword. There can be no stronger proof than this of the extreme wretchedness of those times. All was tumult, war, distrust, cruelty and the most sudden and bloody revolutions.

But there are two circumstances in the period of history now before us, which merit the particular attention of the reader, viz. the establishment of the Christian religion throughout the empire, by means of the conversion of the emperor Constantine, surnamed the *Great*; and his removal of the seat of government from Rome to the ancient city Byzantium, which he rebuilt, and called *Constantinople*, or the *City of Constantine*.

We have already noticed the rapid spread of the Christian religion. In the days of Constantine, it had penetrated almost every part of the empire. No sooner, therefore, did that prince declare in favor of it, than it became the religion of the court, the capital, and soon, of the empire

itself. This was truly an amazing change; and forms one of the most memorable eras in ecclesiastical history. A meek and humble religion, unknown to the world, or if known, despised and persecuted, set on foot by a few obscure persons in Judea, and propagated only by the force of rational conviction, spread and prevailed against all opposition; overturned the altars and silenced the oracles of the heathen; and at last, through hosts of prejudices, fortified by antiquity, and sanctioned by universal custom, made its way to the throne of the Cesars. It was like a "stone cut out of a mountain without hands, becoming a great mountain and filling the whole earth."

There are various accounts given, and various opinions formed, concerning the conversion of Constantine. Whether his mind was swayed by the power of truth, or by temporal, political and interested motives, is not easy to determine. It is related, and believed by some, that his conversion was miraculous. They say, that he saw in the heavens the sign of the cross, with this inscription in radiant letters, *Touto Nika*, i. e. *By this conquer*; and that upon this, he immediately embraced Christianity. His life and conduct were by no means eminent for Christian virtue; nor was he wholly free from crimes of the deepest die.

From this period, the Christian church was loaded with honor, wealth and power; nor did her virtue ever sustain a severer trial. The chief dignitaries of the empire could scarcely do less, than imitate their master; and Christianity soon became a necessary qualification for public office. The church now no longer appeared in her ancient simplicity and purity; lords and princes were among her converts; and she was dressed in robes of state. Her ceremonies were increased; her forms of worship were loaded with pomp and splendor; her doctrines were intermingled with the senseless jargon of a philosophy, equally absurd and vain; and the way seemed prepared, not only for the decay of Christian doctrine and morality, but of every science, which distinguishes civilized from savage nations.

After various wars and competitions, Constantine, in the year of Christ 320, became sole master of the Roman empire. He certainly did whatever could be done, by an accomplished general and statesman, toward restoring the empire to its ancient glory. But, alas! he did not reign over the ancient Romans. His people had been often defeated, humbled, enslaved, and trampled in the dust. The true

Roman spirit was long since utterly extinguished; and, as we have had occasion to observe, Italy itself was filled with a mighty heterogeneous mass of population, of no fixed character. His strong genius, for a moment, sustained, but could not ultimately save, the falling fabric.

The ambition of Constantine gave a more fatal blow to the Roman empire, than even the vices of Commodus. To secure to himself a glory equal with that of Romulus, he formed the resolution of changing the seat of empire. The place, upon which he pitched as a new capital, to immortalize his name, was indeed well chosen. The ancient city of Byzantium enjoyed the finest port in the world, on the strait of the Thracian Bosphorus, which communicates with those inland seas, whose shores are formed by the most opulent and delightful countries of Europe and Asia. Thither Constantine caused the wealth of the empire to be conveyed; and directly a new and splendid city arose, which was able to rival ancient Rome. That proud capital, so long the mistress of empire, suddenly became but a satellite, and was forsaken of honor, wealth and glory; since the emperor, and all who were devoted to his interest, used every possible means to exalt the new seat of empire.

This wound was deadly and incurable. It proved fatal not only to one city, but to the Western Empire. Rome was utterly abandoned by Constantine. Nor was it much alleviated under his successors, among whom, a permanent division of the empire taking place, Rome and Italy fell under the government of a series of weak, miserable, short-lived tyrants, who rose by conspiracy, and fell by murder, in rapid succession; till, in the 476th year of the Christian era, Augustulus, the last of the Roman emperors, was conquered and dethroned by Odoacer, king of the Heruli, who, at the head of an immense army of barbarians, overrun all Italy, and put a period to the Western Empire.

Thus ended Rome, after having stood 1229 years. When we consider the length of her duration, her character, and the nature and extent of her resources, we shall not hesitate to pronounce her the most powerful and important city, which ever existed, and as standing at the head of the first rank of cities. But if this remark is true of Rome in the times of which we are now speaking, it will serve to awaken our admiration, when we consider, that Rome survived even this shock; and, as though she was destined to bear rule, from being the head of a most powerful empire, she soon became

the head of an ecclesiastical institution not less powerful. She spread her wing over all the powers of Europe. They trembled at her mandates. She deposed monarchs at her pleasure, trampled on crowns and sceptres, and, for ten centuries, exerted the most despotic sovereignty. She is even to this day, one of the finest cities in the world.

[*Athens and Corinth under the Romans.*—After the Roman power was permanently established in Greece, no cities but Athens and Corinth were sufficiently distinguished to merit particular attention. Athens revolted from the Romans, in the time of the Mithridatic war; but was reduced by Sylla, who burned the Piræus and defaced the city and suburbs. The civil war between Cesar and Pompey soon followed; in which they sided with Pompey. Here they were unfortunate; for Cesar conquered. But Cesar did not treat them as Sylla had done. With that clemency, which made so amiable a part of his character, he dismissed them with a fine allusion to their illustrious ancestors; saying, that he spared the living, for the sake of the dead. Cesar likewise rebuilt the city of Corinth, which had lain desolate ever since its destruction by the savage Mummius.

The Athenians afterwards sided with Brutus and Cassius against Augustus; and erected the statues of these republicans near those of their own ancient deliverers, Harmodius and Aristogiton. But they were still unfortunate; for their enemies triumphed.

At this time the city was manifestly declining, on account of the Romans having fixed the seat of their government at Corinth. The literary fame of Athens, however, did not then decline. When the apostle Paul visited that city, it was full of philosophers, rhetoricians, orators, painters, statuaries, and young persons who came to learn philosophy and the arts. But this sort of people being generally very idle, were great talkers, and had an insatiable curiosity. This account is corroborated by Luke: "All the Athenians and strangers who were there, spent their time in nothing else, but either to tell or to hear some new thing." It is said, there were more images in Athens, than in all Greece besides, and that they worshipped the gods more than all the rest of Greece. Well, therefore, might Paul tell the Areopagites, that he perceived they were in all things too superstitious, or extremely religious. His eloquent address before that venerable council will be found in Acts xvii. Though the apostle's success was small at that time, the

seeds were probably scattered, which afterwards produced an abundant harvest; for in the next century, there was a church there, remarkable for its order.

Paul next visited Corinth, where he resided about eighteen months. This city was admirably situated for commerce, on the Corinthian gulf. On the east side, was the port of Cenchrea, which received the merchandise of Asia, by the Saronic gulf; and on the west side, the port of Lecheum received the merchandise of Italy, Gaul and Spain, by the Crissean gulf. The inhabitants were very dissolute as well as very learned. Public prostitution formed a part of their religion; and it is said, that the temple of Venus maintained no less than a thousand women of abandoned character. Riches produced luxury; and luxury a total corruption of manners. And yet even in Corinth, the gospel of Jesus Christ, prevailed over the universal corruption; and a Christian church was founded. The arts, sciences and literature long continued to flourish here.

Under the mild empire of Trajan, the Athenians retained their fondness for the monuments of sculpture; as Pliny mentions, that in his time the city was adorned with no less than three thousand statues. In Adrian, they found a generous benefactor. He bestowed upon them new privileges; and the city under his influence, reflected a faint ray of its former glory. His successors, Antoninus Pius and Marcus Aurelius, were likewise benefactors.

It is related, that Constantine, when emperor, gloried in the title of *general of Athens*; and rejoiced exceedingly on obtaining from that people, the honor of a statue with an inscription, which he acknowledged by a yearly gratuity of many bushels of grain.

In the time of Theodosius I. 380 years after Christ, the Goths laid waste Thessaly and Epirus; but Theodore, general of the Acheans, by his prudent conduct, preserved the cities of Greece from pillage, and the inhabitants from captivity.

In the year 410, Alaric, the savage plunderer of Italy, extended his conquests to Greece, and marked his steps by ruin and devastation. He passed the strait of Thermopylæ, from which the Greeks, unmindful, or perhaps ignorant of the disaster of Xerxes, and the glory of Leonidas, retired as he advanced. As soon as the voice of his herald was heard at Athens, the descendants of those heroes, who conquered at Marathon and Salamis, opened their gates.

The invaluable productions of antiquity were removed; the stately and magnificent structures converted into piles of ruin; and Athens was plundered of her choicest treasures. The Peloponnesian towns were overturned; and Arcadia and Lacedemon laid waste.

After this event, Athens became an unimportant place, and continued sunk in obscurity for a series of ages. We read after this, that the cities of Greece were put into a state of defence by Justinian, who, in the sixth century, repaired the walls which at Corinth had been subverted by an earthquake; and at Athens and in Beotia, were impaired by age. Here we take a long farewell of this celebrated city.]

CHAPTER XVI.

BRIEF HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE COURSE OF EMPIRE, FROM THE FALL OF ROME TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EMPIRE OF CHARLEMAGNE, CONTAINING A PERIOD OF THREE HUNDRED AND TWENTY-FOUR YEARS.

FROM the fall of the Roman empire, a period of darkness ensued, equally dreadful for its length, and for the number and greatness of its calamities upon mankind. To trace the history of those times, is like making a progress through chaos, amidst upper, nether and surrounding darkness. We will first notice the fortunes of Constantinople, commonly called the *Eastern*, and in late periods of history, the *Greek* empire.

The successors of Constantine, whom, in this Compend, it will be impossible for us even to name, were more fortunate in the East, than in the West. The numberless swarms of barbarians, which, in these times, poured down from the north of Europe, generally directed their course more westwardly and inundated France, Spain, Italy and even Africa. The empire of Constantinople was various in its extent: sometimes its territories were very extensive, and at others, were limited almost to the city walls. But this city was destined to enjoy a great and almost peculiar felicity. It stood unrifled and unimpaired through all the storms and revolutions of the dark ages. It was never taken by the barbarians of the North nor of the East. It was even fortunate enough to escape the rage of civil war, and to

survive for many ages, to triumph over the vices of its degenerate inhabitants; till, at length, it was taken by Mahomet II. emperor of the Turks, in the year 1453—977 years after the conquest of Rome by the Goths.

During this long period, the reader will find few things in the history of Constantinople worthy of very particular notice. That empire neither abounded in heroes, philosophers, poets, orators, nor historians. Yet the preservation of that one city to so late a period, was certainly an important link in the chain of events, which restored the arts and sciences. The writers of the middle ages, and especially the crusaders, speak in the highest terms of the greatness and splendor of Constantinople. Her final subjugation to the Turks appears to have been a just judgment of Providence upon her, since, though bearing the Christian name, she almost uniformly carried a hostile front to all Christian powers, made more wars upon them, and exercised more animosity towards them, than she did towards Pagans or Mahometans.

If we except Constantinople, the whole of Europe, from the fall of Rome to the establishment of Charlemagne, resembled a troubled ocean. The most splendid cities, the most populous countries, and the most delightful regions of the earth, were harassed and overwhelmed with ruin and desolation. We naturally first turn our eyes toward Italy, whose wretched inhabitants were the severest sufferers of all. The historians of those times say, that their sufferings exceeded all conception; that neither pens nor pencils can describe the barbarity, the rage and the violence of their savage conquerors. All their effects were converted into plunder; their men of every age and character were put to the sword, or dragged into slavery; their women subjected to the most brutal violence, and their cities and villages wrapped in flames.

We can give the reader no juster idea of the miseries of Rome, than by noticing to him, that during this period, that devoted city was besieged and taken by storm five times, in the space of twenty years. Those northern invaders, after having conquered, and in a measure destroyed, the unwarlike inhabitants of the Roman provinces, fell with fury upon one another; and several gloomy centuries were wasted away in the horrors of the most bloody and desolating wars. The Mediterranean sea did not secure the northern shores of Africa from those terrible invasions. An

immense horde of Vandals found their way thither, and settled in those fruitful countries. But their settlement, so far from taking a regular, consistent and pacific form, remained a perpetual scourge, and accomplished the utter ruin of these once opulent regions.

Mankind, in those unhappy times, seemed utterly lost to all mental improvement, as well as to all sense of humanity. For several ages the whole human race scarcely produced one ornament, or could boast of one illustrious character, to illumine the universal gloom, or to cast a partial beam of light through the intellectual chaos; so far from it, that those days were spent in destroying the noblest works of art and genius. A diligent search was made for the most valuable productions of antiquity, not to preserve and treasure up, but to demolish, to burn, and to destroy. Nor did barbarians alone pursue the work of destruction. The superstitions of the apostate Christian church, in too many instances, lent their aid to that infernal work.

In this cursory survey, it would be impossible to notice the slight shades of difference in the situation of the numerous provinces of the Roman empire. And as these times produced no historians, it would be arrogance to attempt to tell the reader what was going on, generally speaking, in the eastern parts of the world. We could say little more, than that the empire of China stood firm in its strength, having already flourished for many ages. India and Persia have been subject to changes, divisions and revolutions from time immemorial, especially the former; and the Greek writers are, perhaps, the only historians, who ever wrote correctly the Persian history. It was but partially known before, and has been far less so since, the Augustan age. The North of Europe was only known by the incredible swarms of barbarians, which issued from it, and overwhelmed the civilized world. Of the history of Arabia, we shall soon have occasion to speak; and concerning the immense interior of Asia, commonly called Tartary, the best of modern geographers are yet almost wholly ignorant, as also of the middle regions of Africa.

The island of Great Britain has been known in history, since the time of its conquest by Julius Cesar. The Britons made a formidable resistance to his arms; and were never but partially conquered. When the Roman empire fell, that island shared in the general calamities. The British called over to their aid the Saxons, a nation from

Germany, to assist them against the fury of the Picts and Scots, by whom they were invaded. The Saxons, led by Hengist and Horsa, two powerful chieftains, readily obeyed the call, and, according to the fashion of the age, came over in such numbers, as not only to repel the Picts and Scots, but to conquer and enslave the Britons themselves. They therefore settled in the south parts of the island; and at length erected themselves into seven petty but independent kingdoms, commonly called the *Saxon Heptarchy*. These were at length united into one government by Egbert, who, about the year 800, reigned over them all, and founded the English monarchy. This brings the English history to the close of the period, which was to be the subject of the present chapter.

Arabia forms the southwest corner of Asia. It is a tract of country considerably more than a thousand miles square, and is peninsulated by the Persian Gulf on the east, and the Red Sea on the west. This great country is supposed to have been peopled originally by the family of Ishmael, the son of Abraham.

Of Ishmael it was foretold, that he should be an archer, and that his hand should be against every man, and every man's hand against him. This prediction seems to have been fully accomplished in his posterity. The Arabs have ever been excellent horsemen and archers; formidable with the bow and lance; and they have been wild men, and have dwelt in the desert. A singular circumstance in this history, is, that they have never been conquered or subjugated by any nation, although it has been attempted successively by the Chaldeans, the Persians, the Romans and, in late ages, by the Turks.

In the beginning of the seventh century, a fire broke out in Arabia, which for a while threatened to involve in its flames, all Europe and Asia. It is remarked by an able historian, as a wonderful synchronism, that the very same year, in which the Roman pontiff was proclaimed universal bishop, Mahomet, the grand impostor, forged the Koran in a cave at Mecca. The usurpations of the Romish church were then complete; the beast was at his full growth, and was then ready to begin his reign. It would thence seem probable, that the beast and the false prophet began, and will end, their career nearly together.

A. D.
606.

It is matter of doubt, whether the great exploits and astonishing elevation of some men, are to be set down to the

account of their extraordinary natural endowments, or to a favorable coincidence of events in the world around them. Mahomet, from an obscure parentage, birth and education, rose to a height, and with a rapidity, almost without a parallel. From the occupation of a tradesman, he retired to a cave in Mecca, where he pretended he had frequent interviews with an angel, by whose assistance and direction, he wrote the Koran on the plate bones of camels. He, at length, issued from the cave, and began to publish his mission to the people of Mecca. A storm was soon raised against him, and he fled from Mecca to Medina. This flight, the Mahometans call the *Hegira*; and regard it as their grand epoch; as we do the birth of Christ. The followers of Mahomet soon became numerous. He subdued, or rather revolutionized, his native country, and, in a short time, all the neighboring countries. His religion spread with his arms, and was embraced, wherever he conquered.

The Saracens, as Mahomet's followers were called, after his death, still pursued their conquests; and in a very short time, all the West of Asia, the North of Africa, and the South of Europe, were overrun by this dreadful inundation; which, if possible, was more bloody and exterminating, than that of the Goths and Vandals. A final stop, however, was put to the progress of the Saracens in Europe by Charles Martel; who defeated them with great slaughter between Tours and Poitiers, killing, it is said, 370,000 in one day. This battle was fought in the year 734.

Mahomet declared himself to be the prophet of God, sent into the world, to enlighten and reform mankind; and that he was clothed with greater light and powers, than either Moses or Christ. His doctrines and morality were drawn from such sources, as would best suit the prejudices, and obtain currency among the nations whom he conquered. They were extracted from the Jewish and Christian scriptures, from oriental traditions, from legendary trash of the rabbies, and indeed from the inventive genius of Mahomet himself, whose knowledge of mankind enabled him to foresee, how they might easiest be led and governed. He taught the unity of God, and the universality of his providence, or, rather, in the strictest sense, the doctrines of the Fatalist.

His scheme of morality allowed the full indulgence of the passions, being exactly suited to the most depraved mind; and he so managed the affairs of a future state, that

they could have no influence in favor of virtue, or in opposition to vice.

It was not without reason, that he relied on the natural disposition of men for the ultimate success of his doctrines; but his main arguments, for their propagation, were fire and sword.

The kingdoms of Europe in general, as to their extent and boundaries, seem to have been parcelled out by accident, or more properly by nature. Spain is marked out by oceans and mountains; France, by oceans, mountains and rivers; Germany and Italy, in like manner. As early as the period under consideration, some remote vestiges may be discovered of the present European establishments. Early in the sixth century, Clovis laid the foundation of the French monarchy; at which time, the rage of emigration by nations had generally subsided; either because the wilds of Europe had poured forth all their daring spirits, or because a general repletion of the southern provinces had rendered a kind of reflux necessary. No part of Europe had oftener been traversed and ransacked, than France; but as they found less plunder there, they generally pushed forward to other countries. The Franks at length made a settlement there, after having driven out and destroyed several Gothic nations, who had previously dispossessed the Romans and ancient Gauls. From the Franks, the country is supposed to have obtained the name *France*. The Franks, after maintaining long and bloody wars with subsequent invaders for several ages, at length found themselves united by a more regular form of government under Clovis, who is reckoned the founder of the first dynasty of French monarchs.

A. D.
481.

During the period before us, the face of Europe was changed, as we have already stated, by the Gothic and Saracen irruptions. The first care of these barbarous invaders was to destroy and forever to obliterate the inhabitants, the institutions, the manners and customs of the countries, which they subdued. A far more difficult task was to maintain their acquisitions against subsequent invaders; for the North of Europe, like an immense storehouse of nations, poured forth innumerable hordes, in rapid succession. These were equally hostile to each other, and knew nothing but to make war—to kill and ravage, wherever they came. Whether it was owing, however, to the softening influence of mild climates, combined with the scatter-

and rays of science, humanity and order, which had escaped the overwhelming flood of darkness; or whether to the imperceptible influence of various unknown causes upon individuals, the people in the South and West of Europe, instead of sinking into a savage state, began, in the sixth century, to assume a regular form of government, which, though bad in itself, yet, under the influence of a natural course of causes, ultimately led on to the present state of Europe.

The northern barbarians entertained a high sense of freedom; and each of them considered himself as entitled to a liberal share of whatever his tribe should conquer. Each great chieftain, therefore, granted out and divided the conquered lands to the high officers next to himself, and they subdivided the same among their followers or vassals; under this express condition, that each man should do military service a certain part of his time to his immediate lord; and that each lord or great vassal of the court should also do military service to the grand chieftain or king. This division of property, which prevailed in every part of Europe, was grounded wholly on military policy. It became, in fact, the only organized system of defence for several centuries, and has obtained the name of the *Feudal System*.

This system of property, government and war, although it must be regarded as a happy change from a direful plunge of the human species into anarchy, and all the degradations of a savage state, yet was radically defective, and certainly conduced to protract the ages of darkness. Still, however, it left room for the slow operation of causes, which would naturally correct, improve and elevate the human mind, and which would, at length, originate other causes, far more efficient and rapid in rending the veil of darkness, and once more ushering the nations into the light of science and civility. Those who would see this subject handled with great elegance and perspicuity, may find it in the first volume of Dr. Robertson's History of CHARLES V. We shall here only observe, that the exorbitant power of the middle order was the grand defect of the Feudal System. The great lords held the power of life and death over their own subjects; and also the right of making war in their own defence. Of course, if with such an extent of prerogative, they confederated, they always outweighed the king. If they were at war with each other, which was

often the case, the king had no control over them; because it was impossible for him to raise or command an army without their assistance. On the one hand, therefore, the hands of the monarch were tied; and, on the other, the lowest order were little better than abject slaves to their immediate governors.

The feudal governments were at no great remove from the very worst of oligarchies. The want of power in the prince, and the force of the nation being so divided, rendered them weak against invasion. This weakness was increased by the jealousy and turbulence of the great lords, who frequently occasioned civil wars, and at length reduced them to a state of anarchy, from which they could only be recovered and reunited by union, and a strong sense of common danger.

In the midst of the fluctuating waves of war, revolution and anarchy, the powerful and fortunate genius of Charlemagne erected a new empire in Europe; which, for a moment, bid fair to cut short the reign of darkness, and re-establish those institutions, which improve and adorn society. His dominion comprehended the fairest parts of Europe, France, Germany and Italy. This event took place in the beginning of the ninth century.

But as nothing can be more uninteresting, than the sterile histories of the wars and revolutions of the dark ages, so, even what is known of the battles, the sieges, the victories, the conquests, the elevation and the grandeur of Charlemagne, will be little more improving to the reader of history, than to tell him that Charlemagne was a soldier of fortune; that he fought bravely, and was generally victorious; in a word, that he established a huge empire, consisting of a heterogeneous mass of crude materials—incongruous, disjointed members, and which he governed for several years, not by any regular plan of civil policy, which the nations were then as incapable of receiving, as of organizing; but by a strong military arm, which he wielded with dexterity and success; and that, when he expired, his empire fell into pieces.

In justice, however, to this great monarch, it must be noticed, that he was far from resembling the fierce, cruel and barbarous chieftains of the Goths or Saracens. Instead of deserving the title of *ATTILA, the scourge of God, and the terror of men*, he is justly celebrated for cultivating the

arts of peace; for encouraging men of learning and wisdom; and for promoting various important civil institutions.

Perhaps, but for him, Europe had still remained under the cloud of Gothic ignorance. He merits an honorable rank among those great and powerful minds, which evinced the possibility of checking the strong current of the times; and could he have lived and reigned for a century, he might have raised Europe from her degraded state. But time, and a long series of events, could only mature those seeds of order and virtue, which under his administration began to vegetate, but which, in a manner, disappeared with him, and left the world in still palpable darkness.

And here, as in the middle watches of the night, we shall close the FIRST VOLUME of this rapid and cursory survey, and leave the reader to repose in hope of a fairer morning; though a morning without clouds is hardly to be expected in a world, abounding as this hitherto has, more with vice than with virtue, and more with darkness than with light.

A

COMPEND OF HISTORY,

FROM THE

EARLIEST TIMES;

COMPREHENDING A GENERAL VIEW OF THE

PRESENT STATE OF THE WORLD,

WITH RESPECT TO

CIVILIZATION, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT;

AND

A BRIEF DISSERTATION

ON THE

IMPORTANCE OF HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE.



BY SAMUEL WHELPLEY, A. M.

PRINCIPAL OF THE NEWARK ACADEMY.



Tenth Edition.

WITH CORRECTIONS AND IMPORTANT ADDITIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS

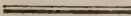
BY REV. JOSEPH EMERSON,

PRINCIPAL OF THE FEMALE SEMINARY AT WETHERSFIELD.



TWO VOLUMES IN ONE.

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Clerk of the District of Massachusetts.

TO THE READER.



IN the preceding volume, we have attempted to sketch the great line of history, through the ancient nations. A similar attempt with regard to the modern, and on the same scale, however small it may appear, would be impracticable, without extending the work far beyond its intended limit. The reader has already been apprized, that methodical abridgment, even in the former part of the work, was not intended; much less will it be in the subsequent.

As we approach our own times, the subject matter of history becomes so copious, that its very outline would fill volumes; and its skeleton could not be accurately drawn, but in a work of magnitude.

In passing through a field so wide and diversified, we shall be able only to suggest some of the principal topics of historical observation. It will be like gliding lightly and swiftly over the numberless waves of the ocean, and touching only some of their highest tops. Yet our selection of topics has not been without regard to the pleasure and profit of the reader. It is feared, that the rapidity and general nature of the narration, kept up for so long a time, will chill and disgust the mind. But we apprehend less danger from this source, than from a strictly chronological form, which would exhibit a much greater number of facts, but without combination.

In our choice of objects to present to the experienced reader, we have had continual reference to the power of association, and have endeavored to present such as will be most likely to bring to remembrance groups of ideas and circumstances, which were once fresh, but are now fading in the mind.

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HISTORICAL COMPEND.

CHAPTER I.

BRIEF HISTORICAL VIEW OF EUROPE, FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE NINTH TO THAT OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY, CONTAINING A PERIOD OF SEVEN HUNDRED YEARS.

THE history of Europe, from the 9th to the 16th century, presents the following important particulars, viz.—The decay of the Feudal System; the crusades; the revival of commerce, followed by that of the liberal arts and sciences; the organization and establishment of several European powers; the origin, rise and progress of the Turks; and, blended with the whole, a series of bloody and desolating wars, the offspring of depravity and ambition.

During the period now before us, we shall, in this and the following chapters, take notice of such leading traits of character and such events only, as concern Europe in general.

In a former chapter, we have given such a general sketch of the Feudal System, as was judged sufficient in that place. We shall, however, further remark here, that that system not only opened a new era on the people of Europe, but gave to the various wheels of society a momentum, which still influences their motions. The feudal chieftains acquired an ascendancy, especially in property, which still continues to mark the grades in society; and though the feudal tenures have gradually melted away, and given place to a more civic form, especially in England, yet the ancient grants of lands marked out certain channels, in which property must for a long time continue to flow.

The Feudal System may be defined, the granting of lands to certain persons, in consideration of military services. At what time, or in what place, this custom originated, it is not easy to determine. It is the opinion of many, that it was rather the accidental result of the state of society and property, which succeeded the overthrow of the Roman empire by the barbarians. But others, among whom judge Blackstone is the chief, affirm it to have been among the

ancient customs of the North of Europe, as early as the times of Julius Cesar. We shall leave this inquiry to be pursued by such, as have leisure and inclination.

This system gave a direction to the spirit of freedom, prevalent among the descendants of the conquerors of Rome, with which the ancients were never acquainted. This was fully displayed in the institutions of chivalry and knight-errantry. The general object of those institutions, appears to have been, the promotion and defence of integrity, honor, virtue, innocence and merit in general. They often, indeed, awakened too keen a sense of injury, and thirst for revenge, and of course terminated in blood; but they certainly led the way to that refinement of sensibility, which is the chief ornament of civilization. To those institutions must undoubtedly be ascribed, the merit of raising the female sex to that rank, which they ought to hold as rational beings and members of society; and of securing to them that treatment—that protection and respect, which are due to their softness, their delicacy and their superior sensibility.

The raising of the female sex to the rank and estimation they now hold, in the politer nations, must certainly be regarded as one of the most illustrious events recorded in civil history. Though it seems to have arisen out of chivalry and knight-errantry, yet the truth probably is, that its origin may be traced to a deeper cause. The people of the North of Europe had very early broken loose from the inebriating manners, and despotic governments of Asia, and had, of course, never imbibed their maxims, but retained a strong sense of the native independence, liberty and equality of men. Those original notions, when refined a little by the influence of wealth and learning, enkindled a spirit of gallantry and personal honor.

The spirit of chivalry carried men to all lengths in defence of their own honor, or of that of the ladies, whose protection they had avowed. They would run all hazards, dangers and difficulties, encounter all hardships, or face death in every form.

Those principles and passions, when ameliorated by the lapse of ages—when restrained by the influence of enlightened morality and salutary laws, form some of the noblest traits in the human character. And it is pleasing to look back into those barbarous times, and see the seeds of order and improvement, even among the Goths and Vandals,

which should one day spring up, and far transcend the refinements of Greece and Rome. The conquerors of Rome, we generally and justly style barbarians; but they were, in many essential respects, less barbarous, than the Romans whom they conquered. They had more justice and integrity, and more of every manly virtue. They were far less depraved in their morals; and possessed minds at least capable of improvement.

Another custom, which was the genuine growth of the Feudal System, and which obtained an extensive influence through Europe, was the trial by duel—the most unreasonable and extraordinary practice, which, perhaps, ever existed among men under the form of justice and legality.

The decision of causes by duel became so creditable and so common, that even actions of debt were decided by it. All possible disputes, which required the intervention of law, were settled in open court by single combat. The person who failed was considered as having lost his cause, by an act, that was providential and divine. The evils and calamities of this practice were very great. In those times, quarrels and controversies were frequent, and litigations incessant; and the whole world, even in times of peace, was overspread with slaughter, mourning and distress. Those capricious trials were, at every step, liable to take a turn, which strongly marks the licentious freedom of the times; for even the judge on the bench was liable to be challenged for his sentence, or an advocate or witness at the bar, for his advice or testimony. It was no uncommon thing for the judge to be challenged on account of his decision, the advocate, for his counsel, the witness, for his testimony, and even the friends of one party or the other, for their countenance on the occasion. But a case far more common than this, was, that very often, previous to the day of trial, the plaintiff or defendant, the witness or the judge, was assassinated. Those were times of cruelty, of darkness and misery. There is great reason for gratitude to that all-powerful, overruling Providence, which determined, that mankind should see happier days.

The revival of commerce was one of the natural consequences, resulting from the spirit of liberty and enterprise prevalent in the Feudal System. The ancient nations generally regarded every species of traffic, as attaching to itself a certain kind of ignominy and degradation unworthy of nobility. But that reproach was wholly wiped away in

the revival of commerce, and it was thought not unworthy of the patronage and attention of lords and princes.

Venice, Genoa, Pisa and several other of the Italian cities, having obtained certain privileges and exemption from feudal customs, led the way in European commerce. They soon rose to a degree of wealth and independence, which gave them an influence in all the great concerns of Europe. Venice was the first, the most powerful and permanent republic, which rose after the fall of the Roman empire; and, next to Great Britain, is the most surprising proof, which any age has afforded, of the power of commerce.

When Maximin, the Roman emperor, besieged the ancient city of Aquileia, the inhabitants, perceiving, that the tyrant would carry the city by storm, found means to make their escape in the night, and fled to the marshy grounds, which lie at the head of the Adriatic gulf. Those grounds are said to be accessible only by one causeway or pass. Here those unfortunate but hardy people settled on a cluster of little islands, and on flats, where the land and water disputed for empire. But the Aquileians stepped in, and, wresting the dominion from both, built wharves and dikes and bridges; and at length with an intrepid industry, almost unknown to the world, they raised a noble city, which may be regarded among the cities of modern Europe, as the first born from chaos and darkness. Enriched by commerce, and ennobled by a sudden and surprising revival of taste, it soon became equally splendid and powerful. It merited to have given law to Europe, and, for a while, had well nigh done it. But if it did not govern Europe, it certainly did for her a much more honorable and illustrious task. It saved her from the horrid fangs of Turkish power; and, in so doing, from a second age of darkness—perhaps from irretrievable ruin.

The power of the Venetians by sea was such as to be an overmatch for the Turks, till other powers arose in Europe, who could cope with them by land. But the commerce of the Italian states filled all the ports of Europe with the richest commodities, and served to awaken a general spirit of enterprise, which had slumbered for many centuries; or, more properly speaking, had as yet scarcely been awake. The Italian states, in strictness, were the first commercial people, who ever existed in Europe. The Romans, rightly called the descendants of Mars, were

never a commercial people. They carried on, no doubt, some commerce, as they did arts and agriculture. But they, very early, found out a readier way of acquiring wealth. Instead of trading with nations, they conquered them, and took the whole of their effects. When they had done conquering, and had nothing to do but enjoy their wealth, they still chose rather to fight than to trade. Of course they fought among themselves. The Gauls and Britons traded some; but their traffic was of a limited and local nature, and in the light of modern commerce, deserves not to be mentioned. Some of the Grecian states, indeed, did something in the commercial line, but their character was rather military and scientific. "They combat," said one, "for glory, and not for interest."

The empire of Charlemagne, founded A. D. 800, although it survived him but a short time, strengthened and edified the French and German monarchies. Spain, at this time, contained several petty kingdoms; and some of the Italian republics, in the ninth and tenth centuries, acquired permanence and a regular form of government. Little had yet occurred to break the force, or loosen the foundations, of the Feudal System. It stood in its strength, and might forever have remained an effectual bar to the improvement and civilization of Europe, had not wild fanaticism, and extravagant superstition at length effected, by the most extraordinary means, what never could have been looked for in a regular course of probable events. An event took place, which shook the minds of men from their established foundations; tore up from the bottom their deepest prejudices; awakened them from the slumber of ignorance and the dreams of delusion; and presented before them illustrious motives and models of action.



CHAPTER II.

VIEW OF EUROPE CONTINUED.—THE CRUSADES.

AT the end of the tenth century, a rumor prevailed through Europe, that the Son of God was about to make his personal advent to this world, in order to establish a universal empire, the seat of which was to be at Jerusalem. It occurred, therefore, that it was a duty, the performance of which would confer illustrious merit, to rescue the holy

land from the hands of infidels, in order to be in readiness for that grand event. It was proposed, that the Christians of Europe should march in a body sufficient to crush the Mahometan powers of Asia; and it was inculcated and believed, that, under the sacred banners of the cross, they should bear down all opposition, or, if any fell in battle, that their cause would be a certain passport to the regions of bliss.

Preaching heralds were suddenly dispersed through Europe on this important mission. Some of them went clad in sackcloth, with their heads and feet bare.* They flew with incredible speed from kingdom to kingdom, promising to each soldier of the cross, at least the eternal blessings of heaven, and threatening such as remained inactive, with the endless wrath of Deity.

Their success was beyond calculation. The most powerful princes enlisted under the banners of the cross. The flame spread, and continued to burn, from the shores of the Baltic to the strait of Gibraltar; and from the banks of the Danube to the bay of Biscay. All causes were swallowed up in one; and men of all professions, of all ages, descriptions and nations, coalesced under the honorable title of SOLDIERS OF CHRIST, and *Champions of the cross*. In all places the martial trumpet was heard, and warlike preparations were seen. Immense swarms of people thronged from all quarters, to places of general rendezvous, whence, in still larger bodies, they rolled, like mighty torrents, into Asia. Never were the nations of Europe agitated by so general a passion; nor did ever a public passion equal this for strength or duration; for it governed Europe so entirely, that to make, to preserve, or to recover acquisitions in Judea and its neighborhood, was the grand and favorite object for two centuries. The reader may judge of the importance of the enterprise, when he is told, that, after two centuries were elapsed, upwards of two millions of lives lost, and incalculable sums expended, the Christians lost all footing in Judea; which has ever since remained under the power of the Turks. This was probably among the wildest, most vain and extravagant enterprises ever undertaken by man. We shall only add the sentiment of an elegant historian, that it is matter of lasting regret, that the crusades, being the only enterprise in which the powers of Europe ever generally engaged, should re-

* Peter the Hermit, and others.

main to all posterity, an unexampled monument of human folly.

But however vain and extravagant the crusades were, they were productive of lasting good to mankind. They changed the character and the manners of Europe. They, in the first place, drew off and in a measure exhausted, those fierce and fiery spirits, which could never be at rest. They gave full scope to the ardor of thousands of knights and chevaliers; so that their flaming and inordinate courage found other employ, than to waste and extinguish itself in the blood of honest and peaceable citizens.

The general union of all Europe in one common cause, although a wild religious frenzy was at the bottom of it, prevented many wars, hushed many commotions, and caused numberless private animosities to be forgotten; the inhabitants of different countries became acquainted with each other; and especially, when they met in the remote regions of Asia, they looked upon each other as brethren engaged in one grand cause, where life, honor and glory were all at stake. The crusades may in fact be regarded, as the commencement of that intercourse among the people of Europe, which has been ever since increasing; and which cannot fail to assimilate and polish their manners.

The Venetian fleets were greatly concerned in transporting the armies and the provisions of the crusaders. The latter, therefore, had an opportunity of beholding and admiring the improvement, civility and politeness, as well as the convenience, the affluence, the power and prosperity, which result from commerce. They were equally astonished and inflamed with the idea. They transmitted accounts of the glory of Italy back to the countries, whence they came, and inspired their countrymen with a spirit of emulation.

Many of their armies passed through Constantinople, which, as already stated, was the only great and important city, that escaped the ravages of the northern and eastern invaders, and descended, unimpaired through the dark ages.

In the year 1204, one of the most memorable in the times of the holy wars, an event took place of considerable consequence to the West of Europe. This was a little after the fifth crusade; and was productive of some very important consequences. Constantinople had long been the seat of civil wars, conspiracies and revolutions. An army of French and Venetians now besieged and took it, and placed

Baldwin, earl of Flanders, on the throne of the Greek empire. The family of Baldwin held their empty title for nearly 60 years, when it was wrested from them by the Greek emperors of Nice.

This will account for the fact, that Flanders and the adjacent countries led the way in the revival of letters. Constantinople, it is probable, contained the most valuable and precious remains of antiquity, which had been there collected by the great Constantine and his successors. The enterprise of the crusaders spread over Europe whatever information they gained in their travels; and, as Constantinople was their place of general rendezvous, the light, refinement and science derived from thence, were, in the course of two centuries, during which the crusades lasted, diffused through Europe.

In fine, the crusades gave a general concussion to the public mind, which forever shook off the tyranny of many barbarous customs; and broke the long and deadly slumbers of ignorance, whose narcotic influence on men's minds is always in proportion to its nature and extent. By promoting national and social intercourse, they tended powerfully to melt away the prejudices, and assimilate the minds of men. As they had a union of object, they would naturally impress the mind with a sense of the power, practicability, and good policy of combinations and extensive alliances. As they passed through countries far more cultivated, more enterprising and more opulent, than their own, they could not but draw instructive comparisons, and must naturally wish to imitate those, whose wisdom and industry had secured to them prosperity and power. By all these means, the eyes of mankind were opened, and many nations of the earth received, at the same time, important lessons of instruction—the genius of Europe was roused, and stood ready to explore the avenues of knowledge, and to trace the intricate paths, which lead to more extensive fields of light and improvement.



CHAPTER III.

VIEW OF EUROPE CONTINUED.—THE OTTOMAN TURKS.

ABOUT the beginning of the 13th century, a new power arose, which first made progress in Asia, and at length became

the terror of all Europe. We have spoken particularly, in the former part of this Compend, of the irruptions of the Scythians from the interior parts of Asia. A warlike tribe, sprung from this prolific fountain, had for some time infested the countries of Western Asia, and at length were established in Bithynia. Othoman appeared at their head, and laid the foundation of a dynasty of most warlike and powerful princes. He flourished about the year 1229. In no part of the annals of history, do we find a braver, more politic, or fortunate race of monarchs, than that of Othoman, or Othman. They seldom failed to unite bravery with prudence, or good fortune with enterprise. In Asia and Africa, their conquests were co-extensive with the empire of Rome; nor would they have fallen short in Europe, but for the intervention of unexpected causes.

Othman was succeeded by his son Orchanes; he by Amurath I.; and he by Bajazet I. Amurath I. led a great army over the Hellespont, and invaded Europe. After making various conquests, he fixed the seat of his empire at Adrianople. Amurath established the janizaries, perhaps the most powerful and efficient corps, the most perfectly trained to the art of war, and the ablest and most to be relied on in the day of battle, of any ever known. In the history of the Turks, it is remarkable, that, for several centuries, the succeeding monarch outdid his predecessor. The son generally excelled the father in energy, policy, grandeur of schemes, and felicity of execution. This remark will in a good measure apply, till the reign of Solyman *the Magnificent*, who raised the Turkish empire to its zenith of glory. It was not so with the emperors of Rome, but often the reverse.

Bajazet, the son of Amurath, was a very great general. He was impetuous as a thunderbolt, yet of cool and thoughtful courage. He possessed the craft and policy of negotiation, together with the powers of compulsion. The Turkish armies in his time were distinguished for their numbers and discipline. Bajazet generally commanded from three to five hundred thousand men; but the flower of his army was 50,000 janizaries. With such a force no power in Europe could have resisted him; and he had matured every plan for extinguishing the Greek empire in the capture of Constantinople. But Providence had raised up a power, before which this haughty conqueror must fall, in the midst of his pride, prosperity and glory.

Tamerlane was, by inheritance, prince of a Tartar clan. Nature had endowed him with a mind capable of forming and executing the grandest enterprises. He early showed that superiority in council and in action, which raised him to the high station of cham of the Usbeck Tartars. His capital was Samarcand. He soon, by the wisdom and energy of his administration, drew to his standard innumerable Tartar tribes, and saw himself at the head of the empire of Genghis Khan. Inflamed by the glory of that great conqueror, he invaded and subdued India, extending his empire to the eastern ocean. From the conquest of India, he had just returned, enriched with spoils of immense value, when ambassadors arrived at his court from the emperor of Constantinople, whose capital was now besieged, and from various other Christian princes, already expelled from their dominions. These ambassadors implored the aid of Tamerlane against the haughty Turk, who threatened the conquest of all Europe.

The mighty Tartar immediately despatched a herald to Bajazet, desiring to know the reasons of his conduct, and offering to mediate between him and the Greek emperor. Bajazet, whom no power could intimidate, returned a haughty and indignant answer; upon which Tamerlane marched against him, it is commonly said, at the head of a million of men, A. D. 1402. All Europe stood paralyzed for a moment at the expected shock; and dreading every thing if the Turks should prevail. They came to a general battle near Angora, about two hundred miles E. S. E. of Constantinople. Perhaps a greater battle has not been fought in modern times. Each army was drawn up in the most consummate manner, according to the tactics of the times. Fifty thousand janizaries, in a solid column, occupied the centre of the Turkish army, at the head of which Bajazet fought on foot.

Tamerlane, in the morning, drew up the flower of his immense force, under the command of his ablest officers; and directed them to commence the action while he looked on as a spectator, and stood ready to send necessary reinforcements from time to time. He had previously announced to Bajazet, that he might expect to meet *him* in battle, when he should see the green flag displayed.

The first shock was tremendous; and the ensuing conflict truly dreadful. The Tartar lords reminded their

soldiers of the glory of Genghis Khan and of the conquest of India.

“Long time in even scale, the battle hung.”

At length, however, the wings of the Turkish army began to give way, borne down by the almost infinite force of the Tartar cavalry and infantry, who fought with astonishing rage and fury. Tamerlane, perceiving the moment of advantage, despatched ten thousand horse and as many foot, to sustain the wasting ardor of the battle.

The Turkish army were generally defeated, dispersed, or cut to pieces, except the janizaries, who, animated by the presence and example of their gallant monarch, seemed to defy all mortal prowess. They stood firm like a rock, which, unmoved, sustains the surging billows. This formidable force, composed of troops of known superiority, and led by the Turkish sultan, who fought with prodigious valor, still held the fortune of the field doubtful; when Tamerlane was seen advancing under the green flag, at the head of 50,000 chosen cavalry, the splendid guards of the conqueror of the East. At that moment, the battle was renewed, and the janizaries, now nearly surrounded, fought with amazing bravery around the person of their king. But they were overwhelmed as with an irresistible torrent; and Bajazet, contrary to his own determination, was taken alive, with many of his guards.

It is related by some historians, that Tamerlane demanded of Bajazet, when brought before him, what he would have done with him, provided fortune had declared in his favour. The captive monarch sternly and haughtily replied, “I would have put you into an iron cage, and carried you for a show all over my kingdom.” “The same,” said Tamerlane, “shall be done to yourself;” and it was accordingly done without delay.

Tamerlane, having rescued the Greek emperor, and freed Europe from immediate danger, by humbling the Turkish power, returned into Asia; and, subduing Syria and Palestine, proceeded to Egypt and Persia, returning after a period of eight years to Samarcand, through the middle countries of Asia. He is represented as a prince of great moderation and self command, and of a mild and amiable temper. He was adored and almost deified by his subjects. His reign was long and prosperous; and his dominions are thought to have been nearly as extensive,

as those of Russia, comprehending a considerable portion of the known world. The emperor of Hindostan claims direct descent from Tamerlane, whose lineal descendants also led the Tartars in the conquest of China. They, of consequence, now possess the thrones of China and India, and govern a third part of the human species.

The Tartars interfered no more with the Ottoman Turks, but left them gradually to recover from so deep a wound. Nor were the Christian princes able to avail themselves of this favorable opportunity to complete the ruin of so formidable a foe. Solyman I. the son and successor of Bajazet, derived courage and fortitude from his father's misfortune; and collecting the shattered remains of his force, soon appeared at the head of an army, which was able to keep the field. So severe a check of the Turks, however, protracted the capture of Constantinople for nearly a century. Solyman was succeeded by Mahomet I.; he, by Amurath II.; and he, by Mahomet the Great. This prince took Constantinople in the year 1453; which was followed by the subjugation of all Greece. The Turks, under the succeeding reigns, became the most formidable power in Europe, till, in the reign of Solyman the Magnificent, A. D. 1526, after subduing Hungary, and carrying off 200,000 prisoners, that great prince advanced into Austria, and laid siege to Vienna. But on the approach of Charles V. at the head of a great army, he raised the siege, and retired into his own dominions, doubtless remembering the fate of Bajazet. This however, carries us beyond the period, which was to be the subject of the present chapter.

As the brevity of this Compend will not allow us to enter again particularly on the Turkish history; before we dismiss that article, it will be proper to state a few things, which do not properly belong to this chapter. There was probably never another race of monarchs of equal abilities for war with the Ottoman race, as far as to the reign of Solyman the Magnificent. They were certainly great in the art of governing a turbulent and licentious race of men, as well at home, or in times of peace, as in the field of battle. And, what is matter of the highest admiration, every succeeding reign seemed to eclipse the former; and the deeds of the father were forgotten in the superior exploits of the son. Mahomet the Great, who took Constantinople, is universally allowed to have been a most politic and accomplished

prince, as well as the greatest commander of his time. But the greatest of the Turkish emperors was Solyman the Magnificent. In him were combined the first qualities of the soldier and statesman. He was fierce and furious as Bajazet, and artful and cruel as Mahomet the Great; besides which, he displayed a grandeur and dignity of mind, which no Turk ever did before or after him. In his reign, the Turkish empire gained its utmost height of power and glory; and though his successors cannot generally be styled weak princes, yet the empire has ever since experienced a uniform and progressive decline; and, it has been thought, would, one day, fall before the power of Russia.

Notwithstanding the great abilities of the Turkish emperors, it must be confessed, that their characters were extremely unlovely, even to a man; all their good qualities being deeply shaded with cruelty, and stained with blood. They commonly ascended the throne, through the blood of their nearest relations; and we may apply to them the strong metaphor, applied to Simeon and Levi by their father Jacob; *Instruments of cruelty are in their habitation.*

There is no nation more uniform in their character, than the Turks. In mind, they seem morose, melancholy, mistrustful, and of course, in their manners, cold, distant and repulsive. Nor do they vary from this character, though dwelling, as they have so long, in those mild and pleasant countries, which it might be thought, would naturally tend to render their dispositions more cheerful, and their manners more gentle and engaging. It is a painful reflection, that those very countries, where the ancient Greeks carried literature and philosophy to such perfection, are now inhabited by some of the most stupid and ugly of the human race. One would be ready to wish, that so gloomy and dirty a race were expelled from Europe, and that some nation capable of appreciating the advantages of the country, would take possession of it.

The word, *Turk*, it is said, signifies a *wanderer*, or *banished man*. Some writers have conjectured that the Turks are descendants of the Jews, or of the Ten Tribes of Israel. From whatever source they sprung, they erected a mighty fabric of power and dominion; and could the course of empire be represented by a line drawn through states and kingdoms, it would pass through Turkey; since there was

certainly a time, when the Turks were the most powerful nation in Europe, and, if we except China, perhaps the most powerful in the world.

CHAPTER IV.

THE SAME CONTINUED.—IMPORTANT DISCOVERIES AND IMPROVEMENTS.

AS the crusades effected a general change of character in Europe, they in fact laid the foundation for the dawn of that grand epoch, commonly called *the Revival of Letters*. The crusades had in some measure, loosened the fetters of the Feudal System, and diffused a spirit of enterprise through Europe, when commerce, which had long been limited to Italy, began to move northward, along the shores of the continent; and Ghent and Bruges, and the towns, which afterwards formed the body of the celebrated *Hanseatic League*, began to grow famous in Europe.

Toward the close of the 13th century, the crusades had ceased, and all the Christian acquisitions in Asia had fallen into the hands of the Turks. The wheels of commerce had just begun to move, and numberless enterprises and improvements were yet in a state of embryo, when a discovery was made of the highest importance to the commercial and literary world. The difficulty and danger of voyages at sea, had, from the earliest ages, operated as a powerful impediment to navigation. It frequently happened, that a long continued obscuration of the heavenly bodies, in stormy seasons, was attended with the most dreadful consequences to whole fleets, which were driven on shore, without any possible means of foreseeing or avoiding the danger. The invention of the Mariner's Compass, in a great measure remedied these evils. In the year 1300, the magnetic power to give polarity to iron, was discovered to be of importance in navigation; and a compass was constructed, which, at all times, would instantly refer the pilot to any point or course, he wished to know. This truly great and wonderful discovery was made by Goya, at Venice; and may serve to give mankind a just idea of the supereminence of the Venetians, in naval affairs. Columbus, in his adventurous voyage of discovery, first perceived the variation of the compass. This irregu-

larity, though arising from unknown causes, is found, however, to be reducible to such established laws, as not much to lessen the usefulness of the instrument.

Upon this discovery, innumerable difficulties attending navigation vanished; and the fearless mariner traversed the main oceans, under a surer guide, than a transient view of the sun or stars. The discovery of the mariner's compass was attended with vast consequences to mankind. It opened innumerable sources of communication, intelligence, and improvement; and was a grand epoch to all commercial nations. In short, it gave a new face to the old world, and brought a new world to light.

If the mariner's compass formed a new and grand era in navigation, an invention took place in the following century, A. D. 1441, of still greater importance in the literary world, and of more extensive influence in the revival of letters, viz. the ART OF PRINTING. Before this wonderful invention, books were scarce, and bore an exorbitant price. They could only be multiplied by the slow and painful operation of copying one after another; and poor and laboring people could neither purchase, nor transcribe them. But printing multiplied books beyond calculation, and reduced their price in equal proportion; so that the world is now full of books; and the printing of the most useful and elegant productions of genius, costs but a little more than the blank paper. By these means, useful learning began to be generally diffused through Europe. From remote antiquity, a certain mode of block printing has been known and practised among the Chinese; but which bears little resemblance to that important art discovered in modern Europe, from which benefits of such magnitude have arisen to mankind.

In connexion with the first mode of printing, if we consider the valuable improvement of the stereotype, in which all the letters are correctly formed on the face of one solid plate, and there remain unalterable, we cannot but be filled with admiration. The invention of printing is entitled to an honor second to none, but that of alphabetic writing.

The perfection of the naval system, and the extensive multiplication of books, have given a proportional diffusion of light and improvement through many nations. There seem to be but two more grand improvements necessary, in order to place mankind on that footing for progress in

reason, philosophy and virtue, which their exalted powers and faculties and immortal natures, demand. These are universal peace, and a universal language.

1. Universal peace. Although this idea is commonly received by Christians as a matter of faith, and by many others as a groundless theory, yet it seems capable of defence on the principles of reason.

It is generally said, that a man wants but to understand his own interest, in order to pursue it.* And nothing is more certain, than that the bulk of mankind need only to understand their true interest, in order to revolt from the idea of war, with utter abhorrence. Look over the history of wars and see for whose benefit they have been undertaken and carried on. They have been generally waged, to gratify the passion, and carried on to support the thrones, of the most barbarous and detestable tyrants. Read the history of Alexander's wars. For what did his soldiers undergo intolerable hardships and indescribable dangers, but to gratify his insatiable ambition? When such as escaped carnage, had answered his purposes, covered with scars, and disabled by toils, they were cast off, as a worn out shoe, or tattered garment, and consigned to oblivion. The same may be said of most other great conquerors. It may, indeed, be urged, that war furnishes employment for men. So does robbery, and almost every other species of crime. And ought such a reflection as this, to lie against Divine Providence? Can we, for a moment, surmise, that men are thrown into such a condition here on earth, as to have no other means of subsistence, than schemes for the destruction of each other? God forbid! This argument, in favor of war, is an insult upon the Creator, who has said, *Thou shalt not kill*. It is also sometimes said, that war is necessary to diminish population; and that otherwise the world would not hold or support mankind. Must then mankind become worse than wild beasts, and cruel as devils, in order to disburthen the world of its supernumerary inhabitants, and thin the ranks of society?

He who has made man and given him the earth for his habitation, intended it for his support, and there can be no doubt, that could peace become permanent and universal, the arts of peace would so flourish, that the earth would

* It is very far from being true, that men have generally pursued their own best interest, as far as they have understood it.—Ed.

support more millions, than it now does thousands; the whole earth would, at length, become a garden.

Before the globe should acquire more inhabitants, than it could support, Almighty Providence, ever at hand, and all whose course is marked with equal wisdom and benevolence, would help us to a solution of this difficulty, in a way, of which, in our present bewildered state, we can form no conception.

2. The plan suggested by Leibnitz and many others, of a universal language, or as some have styled it, a language of thoughts, would probably result from universal peace. To the hostility* of nations may be reasonably imputed, in a great measure, their diversity of languages, customs and manners. By these, they are divided as by walls of immeasurable height, and kept strangers to each other. They cherish not only personal animosities, but even an aversion to each other's religion, politics and learning. Could the veil be removed from human reason, and the true light of philosophy shine, men would learn to respect one another, and national prejudices would vanish away. Then also the prospects of pleasure and advantage, resulting from a more intimate union between nations, would produce numberless schemes to facilitate a communication, which could only be rendered complete and universal, by a universal language.

That there will be a written language, which all nations can read and understand, is, in fact, a thing far more probable to us, than it can be to a savage, who never heard of an alphabet, or that there is such a thing as we call reading and writing. But what characters and combinations will compose that language, some future Cadmus must determine.

In the midst of the gradually increasing light of science, a few men, in various parts of Europe, seem to have been able to tear off, at once, the palpable veil of darkness from men's minds; and to consume, in a moment, the mighty masses of wood, hay and stubble, which ignorance and superstition had been heaping upon science, for a thousand years. The names of Erasmus and Grotius and Puffendorf merit the highest honor in the illustrious list of the fathers of literature. At the same period, Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, planned and executed the grandest enterprise ever undertaken by man. From his knowledge of the figure of the globe, he conjectured, there must be

* Other causes have probably had a greater influence than this.—*Ed.*

a balancing continent, to operate as a counterpoise to the old one.

For several years, Columbus petitioned the courts of Europe in vain. At length, A. D. 1492, he was furnished with a small squadron of ships by the court of Spain, and commissioned to go and seek for the new world in the western ocean. Braving the dangers of an unknown sea, and the mutinies of his more boisterous and tempestuous sailors, he performed the adventurous voyage, and discovered America. The gratitude of Spain rewarded his services with chains and a dungeon; and mankind, to mend the matter, have called the quarter of the globe, which he discovered, after Americus, a Florentine pilot—about as much entitled to that honor as Bamfield Carew, king of the gypsies, or Tangrolipix the Turkish chieftain.

We have now given the reader a brief sketch of the causes, which raised the nations of Europe into a state of improvement and civilization, after the reign of darkness and barbarity for so many ages. It now only remains that we consider their progress, under the more auspicious influence of science, morality and religion.

CHAPTER V.

BRIEF HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE NATIONS OF EUROPE, FROM
THE BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY TO THE
PRESENT DAY.

GERMANY.

DURING a considerable part of the 16th century, Europe was governed by monarchs, whose uncommon abilities enabled them to improve the science of government. Charles V. Henry VIII. Francis I. and Solyman the Magnificent, were then actors in the great drama, of which all Europe was the stage; and each succeeding year held up new scenes to the politician, historian and philosopher.

The posterity of Charlemagne held the throne of Germany for a hundred years, when they were rejected by the princes of the empire, and Conrad, duke of Franconia, was elevated to the imperial dignity. Since that time, the monarchy has been elective. Various families enjoyed the dignity; and the empire was constantly engaged in wars

with France, with the northern powers of Europe, with the pope, or with the Turks. By the death of the emperor Maximilian in 1519, the German throne, at that time considered as the first among the royal dignitaries of Europe, was become vacant. Two candidates of very different but equally powerful claims, sought the succession; Francis the First, king of France, and Charles, king of Spain and the Low Countries. The proximity of France to Germany, the high military reputation of Francis, the interest he had with several electors, and his capacity for intrigue, induced him to hope for success.

Charles, who by his accession to the imperial throne was denominated the Fifth, was descended from the house of Austria, and by family alliances was the most powerful prince in modern times. His Father was Philip the Handsome, archduke of Austria, and son of the emperor Maximilian. The paternal grandmother of Charles was the daughter of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy; and from her he inherited the sovereignty of Flanders and all the Low Countries. His mother was Joan, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, in whose right he inherited the monarchy of Spain and South America.

These powerful rivals endeavoured to substantiate their claims, and press their pretensions by various, and indeed, by weighty considerations. The known abilities of Francis, as a soldier and statesman, had already spread his fame, and added terror to the arms of France. The truly vast resources of the young Spanish monarch seemed to point him out, as the proper person to sustain the high and important charge of governing and defending the German empire. But the electors, jealous of the French on the one hand, and fearing on the other, the extreme youth of Charles, unanimously determined to make an offer of the imperial crown to Frederic, elector of Saxony, who was surnamed the Wise. The refusal and reply of that magnanimous prince on so interesting an occasion, which we copy from Russel's *Modern Europe*, is worthy of a place in this brief sketch.

“In times of tranquillity,” said Frederic, “we wish for an emperor, who has no power to invade our liberties. Times of danger demand one, who is able to secure our safety. The Turkish armies, led by a warlike and victorious monarch, are now assembling; they are ready to pour in upon Germany with a violence unknown to former ages.

New conjunctures call for new expedients. The imperial sceptre must be committed to some hand more powerful than mine, or that of any other German prince. We possess neither dominions, nor revenues, nor authority, which might enable us to encounter such a formidable enemy. Recourse must be had, in this exigency, to one of the rival monarchs; each of them can bring into the field forces sufficient for our defence. But as the king of Spain is of German extraction, as he is a member and prince of the empire by the territories which descend to him from his grandfather, and as his dominions stretch along that frontier, which lies most exposed to the enemy, his claim, in my opinion, is preferable to that of a stranger to our language, to our blood, and to our country."

"In consequence of this speech," continues the same author, "Charles was elected."

As we now have before us by far the most important period of German history, we shall be a little more particular in giving a sketch of the reign of Charles V. This we shall do, not by exhibiting a detail of events, but by stating a few of the leading objects, which are presented in the histories of those times. And

1. The first object, which engages the attention under this reign, is the rivalry and contention between Charles and Francis. Of this there is scarcely a parallel to be found in history. Their ambition was equal; and the resources and abilities of each were very great, but extremely different. The central and compact situation of France gave it greatly the advantage in several respects. To this add, that Francis I. was not only an accomplished statesman, but an able commander. His genius, however, both civil and military, was of a peculiar cast; and no two rivals were ever more completely different. He was brave, active, energetic and impetuous; though at times his impetuosity betrayed him into rashness. He manifested greater abilities in extricating himself from difficulties, into which his hasty, generous and credulous temper had thrown him, than his rival did in gaining advantages over him.

Charles was gloomy, plodding, and in dissimulation, seldom surpassed. But the distance of Spain and Germany, the two vast machines he had to manage and keep in order, and, in short, the distance of both from the Low Countries, and of the latter from Austria, consumed his time and denied him the celerity necessary to war and conquest.

Indeed when we consider attentively the designs, which Charles accomplished in a long and splendid reign, they can hardly be allowed to be answerable to the greatness and vigour of his genius, or resources. In his wars with Francis, he generally had the advantage; and the famous battle of Pavia in 1525, in the sixth year of his reign, seemed to crown his good fortune in the entire ruin of his antagonist.

On the 24th of February, 1525, the imperial guards encountered Francis at Pavia, near the river Po, in the duchy of Milan. The French army was defeated with great slaughter, and the king himself made prisoner.

Charles having his rival and implacable enemy now in his power, dictated to him such conditions of peace, as his own haughty and crafty policy suggested. These conditions Francis signed, in order to gain his liberty, but was careful never to fulfil.

Though the vast power of the emperor always seemed to give him the upper hand, yet Francis at the time of his death, left his kingdom far better than he found it; and, indeed, his able and vigorous administration laid the foundation for the elevation of France to that sublime height, to which she has since risen.

2. The second leading object in the reign of Charles V. was the systematic and formidable resistance he made to the Turkish power; and this was by far the most fortunate circumstance of his reign. The Turks had become truly terrible to all Europe. The capture of Constantinople, and the reduction of the Greek empire, although it established their dominion over the finest regions of the globe, swelled their treasuries with incalculable wealth, and gave them the fullest enjoyment of imperial magnificence and luxury, neither abated their courage, activity, nor ambition. Their next field of glory was the German empire; and Solyman the Magnificent, now on the throne, seemed every way equal to the greatest enterprise.

Under the reign of this prince, the Turkish power gained its utmost height. Solyman, determining, if possible, to excel his ancestors, had actually planned the conquest of Germany; and, as before stated, had reduced Hungary and laid siege to Vienna, the capital of the German empire. The disposition of Charles was too cool and contemplative to delight in a military life. The present call, however, both of self-preservation and of glory was indispensable.

Charles appeared at the head of an army answerable to his own greatness, as well as to that of his adversary. No force so formidable had been brought into the field against the Turks, since the defeat of Bajazet by Tamerlane. These armies were doubtless composed of the finest troops in the world, directed by the greatest masters of the art of war, and that under the immediate eye of two of the greatest monarchs.

These two consummate statesmen, however, saw too clearly the consequences of hazarding a general battle. They already had too much to risk; and, from the event it seems, that neither of them wished to fight, unless pressed by necessity to that dangerous measure. On the approach therefore of the imperial army, Solyman prudently retired into his own dominions; nor did he see cause, during the life of Charles, to make a similar attempt upon Germany.

The immense fabric of power and policy, which, during Charles's reign, Germany presented to the Turks, in fact, repressed that warlike nation, and their military spirit seemed to expire with Solyman the Magnificent.

3. Charles V. was, at heart, no great friend to religion, in any form, especially when it was likely to interfere with his favorite schemes. He was much fonder of an earthly, than of a heavenly kingdom. This consideration presents another important trait in his reign. For notwithstanding the greatness of his power, it is probable the Reformation could not have been set on foot in any other reign, with greater or equal prospects of success. Charles had no idea of adopting any new religion, nor did he want very much of the old. He was, therefore, an enemy to Luther and the Reformation, of which Luther was the instrument. But the vast schemes of policy, in which his mind was engaged, left him no room to direct his attention to the suppression of what he considered as a religious heresy. He therefore, for a considerable time, left Luther and his adherents to the censures of the church, which he well knew were not apt to be sparing, especially toward those, who attacked her corruptions.

Luther had dared to erect the standard of rebellion against the sovereign pontiff, whose claims and abuses of spiritual power were equally enormous. This he first did by exposing the wickedness of the sale of indulgences. Long before this period, the pope had claimed the power

and right of pardoning sin. At first he granted remission upon confession and signs of repentance; but these terms being at length thought too cheap, the criminal was compelled to pay a sum of money, in order to obtain absolution. From sins past, the transition, by a little refinement, was not difficult to an anticipation of forgiveness of sins to come. This, as may readily be supposed, soon became an important and very lucrative traffic to the church. Indulgences to commit sin were actually sold; and men would so cheerfully pay their money for this article, that it became a principal source of church-revenue. It is said that the sale of indulgence was begun by Urban II. in order to encourage men to engage in the crusades. In the times of Luther, it had arisen to a very high pitch; and the various provinces and departments of the church were actually farmed out, and the business reduced to a regular system.

From censuring this practice, which for the enormity of its wickedness was perhaps never surpassed, Luther proceeded to other corruptions of Popery, and with rapid course, at length to attack the whole fabric of papal power. The popularity of his talents and the force of truth, seemed to aid the purposes of Providence in his exertions. His success was amazing. Among his adherents were many persons of distinction, and some of the most powerful princes of the empire, particularly the Elector of Saxony, and the Landgrave of Hesse.

Whilst the pope was endeavoring by the terror of his spiritual thunders, to subdue Luther and his followers, and render them obedient to his will, the emperor was deeply engaged in far different schemes; intending, however, when he should have leisure, to crush the Reformation, at a blow. But Charles never found much leisure from the toils and vexations of ambition; and before he was ready to second the views of the pope, the Reformation had taken too deep root to be easily extirpated.

This period of German history brings to light one of the most extraordinary characters of modern times. Maurice, marquis of Misnia and Thuringia, rendered himself conspicuous by his formidable resistance to the power of Charles V. the essential service he gave to the Protestant cause, and the dissimulation and duplicity, with which he accomplished his designs. Having first espoused the cause of Luther, he became active in the counsels of the Protes-

tant princes ; but suddenly changed his course, and entered into the measures of the emperor, for suppressing the Reformation. This new coalition, he supported with a high hand, and, after the fall of the Elector of Saxony, succeeded to that principality ; at the same time, taking the most active and effectual measures to ruin the Protestant cause, which now, to all appearance became desperate.

After having gone such lengths, as to gain the entire confidence of the emperor, he again suddenly shifted his course, and by a public manifesto, declared himself the friend of the Reformation, the avenger of the injured princes, whom Charles had stripped of their dominions, and the supporter of the ancient Germanic constitution. At the same time, marching with a powerful army toward Austria, he endeavored to surprise the emperor, as he lay at Inspruck with but a small force. Charles made his escape over the Alps, almost unattended. The night was dark and rainy, and the fugitive monarch was obliged to ride in a litter, being at that time afflicted with the gout.

We must refer the reader to the histories of Germany for a detail of those events, which compelled the emperor to abandon all his ambitious projects. He found, notwithstanding his great resources, that so far from governing Europe, he could not even govern Germany according to his desire. A short time after this, therefore, at the celebrated peace of Passau, Charles fully recognized the claims of the Protestants, allowing them the free exercise of their religion, according to the confession of Augsburg ; and the government of Germany recovered the state in which it was before the aggressions of Charles V. But the most humbling stroke, which he received from Germany, was the refusal of the electoral college to secure to his son Philip the imperial crown ; which being given to his brother Ferdinand, the eyes of that powerful and ambitious prince were fully opened, and he saw the object, with which he had long flattered himself, of a mighty and glorious empire in his own line, now vanish away, as a vain illusion, or an empty dream. An empire, like those of Cyrus, Alexander and Cesar, cannot be founded by the force of civil policy. It must be the offspring of war and conquest. As a statesman Charles was great ; but among his rivals and enemies, he found nearly his match. Henry VIII. Leo X. Francis I. and Solyman the Magnificent, were, at least some of them, not much his inferiors. But Maurice,

a man who rose up, as it were under his shadow, was far his superior in whatever relates to an accomplished statesman. The writer of the History of Modern Europe makes no hesitation to assert, that "perhaps no prince, ancient or modern, ever discovered such deep political sagacity at so early a period of life;" nor indeed are there any known reasons for preferring his political to his military talents.

Maurice, having effectually humbled Charles, restored the Germanic constitution, and confirmed the religious liberties of Germany, seemed to bid fair to become one of the greatest actors in the great drama of modern Europe; but in gaining a victory over Albert of Brandenburg, who had for some time infested the neighbouring countries with depredations, he lost his life in the thirty-second year of his age.

Divine Providence, when it determined to establish the Reformation in Germany, saw fit to preserve the life of Luther in the midst of his enemies and surrounded with dangers. But it is remarkable, that three of the most illustrious defenders of Protestantism, were cut off in the flower of youth, in the commencement of their career, and when they seemed able to accomplish the most important and salutary changes; Maurice of Saxony, Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, and Henry IV. of France.

Charles V. governed the most extensive empire known in history.* It comprehended Germany, the Netherlands, Spain, Italy and territories in America larger than all Europe. Had he been as prone to war, as some men have been, it would seem as though his empire might have been universal. Charles, however, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, astonished Europe, by the resignation of all his extensive dominions. Great as they were, he probably renounced them in disgust, because he could not make them greater. Indeed the first rivals of his glory were no more. Henry and Francis, his youthful competitors, were gone from the stage of action; his favorite schemes were defeated, and forever abandoned; and we may conjecture, that he sickened at the unsubstantial enjoyment of power and dominion. He retired to the monastery of St. Justus in the province of Estramadura in Spain, where he spent two or three of his last years in philosophical speculations, literary pursuits, rural amusements and religious devotions.

* The Russian empire should undoubtedly be excepted.—*Ed.*

But no force of resignation, no form of reasoning could reconcile him to so great a change; and the retrospect whether of scenes of grandeur or of guilt, whether of fallacious hopes or blasted ambition, proved a canker to all his enjoyments, covered him with melancholy, and hastened the decay of his health. He died, A. D. 1558, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, exhibiting a striking proof of the vanity of human ambition.

During the reign of Charles V. the German empire seemed to be at its utmost point of elevation, and was able to preserve a lofty and menacing attitude toward the neighboring powers; so that even the greatest of all the Turkish monarchs was willing to retire at the approach of Charles V. rather than to hazard a conflict with that powerful prince; as already noticed.

Perhaps no nation, for the space of twenty centuries, ever produced more good soldiers, or underwent, more hard fighting, than the Germans. And although the imperial dignity of Germany has been regarded, as the first in Europe; yet the essential defects, interwoven in the frame and constitution of the Germanic body, have rendered it weak, and liable to decay and dissolution.* Since the reign of Charles V. its importance among the belligerent powers of Europe, has, for the most part, experienced a gradual decline.

A vacancy in the imperial throne is supplied by an electoral college, consisting of nine electors, viz. the Archbishop of Mentz, the Archbishop of Triers, the Archbishop of Cologne, the Elector of Bohemia, the Elector of Saxony, the Elector of Brandenburg, the Elector of Palatine and the Elector of Hanover. But we can say little more of the Germanic body, in this place, than that it consisted of about 300 petty princes, who are almost independent in their own dominions. Many of those princes are proud, poor and oppressive; and their subjects are servile, stupid and submissive. The German empire is a vast unwieldy body,

* In the year 1806, Francis II. resigned the crown of the German empire, the ancient Germanic body was dissolved, and several German states united, denominating themselves the Confederation of the Rhine. Of this Confederation, Bonaparte was acknowledged the head. In the year 1815, after the overthrow of Bonaparte, a new union was formed among the states of Germany under the title of the Germanic Confederation. This, however, appears to be very different from the former union.—*Ed.*

more kept together by the pressure of external causes, than by any internal principle of union.

Germany has produced vast numbers of learned and ingenious men. In useful discoveries and inventions, their plodding and apparently heavy genius, has perhaps excelled that of every other nation in the world. But it is ardently to be wished, that the Germans had a better government, and more virtue. It is evident, that essential deficiencies in these important respects, have long been undermining their tottering fabric, and have at last brought them to the brink of ruin.

SPAIN.

OF the history of Spain, very little notice has been taken in any part of this Compend. When the Roman empire fell in pieces, the Spaniards were left to struggle with their own vices and depravity; and a hard struggle it was. Neither its history nor geography is very well known, even to the present day. The Gothic and Saracen invasions both essentially affected Spain; but the affairs of Spain were very little connected with those of Europe in general, till a little before the reign of Charles V. That powerful monarch, inheriting Spain in the right of his mother, and Germany in that of his grandfather, long meditated the ambitious project of universal empire; but Providence had seated on the thrones of the other European powers, princes capable of penetrating and baffling all his designs.

Charles V. after having for many years involved all Europe in war, finding his ambition likely to fail of its ultimate object, abdicated his dominions to his son Philip II. who succeeded him in the government of Spain and the Low Countries. Philip was a gloomy bigot, more fit for a mendicant than a legislator or for a monk than a monarch; but he entered on his public career, with greater resources, than any other monarch of modern times. To render his reign illustrious, therefore, by some grand exploit, he determined on the project of conquering Great Britain; a project, which has often originated on the continent. To this measure, he was impelled by two motives; first, that he might establish his own power and fame as a conqueror; and, secondly, that, in the name of the holy church, he might take vengeance on an apostate, heretical

and reprobate nation, who, since the time of Henry VIII. had rebelled against the see of Rome.

Philip, having determined on his important enterprise, made the most active and powerful exertions. The ports of Europe, from the mouth of the Elbe to the Strait of Gibraltar, resounded with naval preparations. At length a fleet was put to sea, pompously styled *the Invincible Armada*, of size almost sufficient to shade the British Channel. This armada carried not only a great army, thought sufficient to carry off England by handfuls, but a multitude of priests, holy fathers, confessors and inquisitors; together with a court of inquisition complete, with all sorts of engines and instruments of torture, belonging to that hellish tribunal. With these, they intended to enter upon the conversion of such of the English people, as should escape the sword.

A. D. 1588, as the armada approached, they were met by the English fleet, commanded by Admiral Lord Howard and Sir Francis Drake; and the Spanish ships to the amount of nearly one hundred sail, were burnt, sunk, or taken. The remnant were mostly dispersed and lost in a tempest; a few of them in attempting to make their escape round the north of Scotland, were picked up, one by one, or wrecked on the shoals of the Orkney or Hebride islands.

[*The Inquisition.*—The court of Inquisition was founded in the year 1204, or not long after that time. To Dominic de Guzman, the honor of first suggesting the erection of this extraordinary court is commonly ascribed. He was born in the year 1170, descended from an illustrious Spanish family. He was educated for the priesthood; and grew up the most fiery and the most bloody of mortals. Before his time, every bishop was a sort of inquisitor in his own diocese; but Dominic contrived to incorporate a body of men, independent of every human being, except the Pope, for the purpose of ensnaring and destroying Christians. Having succeeded in his diabolical designs, and formed a race like himself, first called *preaching*, and then *Dominican friars*, he died in his bed, was canonized as a saint, worshipped as a divinity, and proposed as a model of piety and virtue to succeeding generations!

The inquisitors, at first, had no tribunals; but when they detected heretics, pronounced sentence upon them; and the secular arm was always in readiness to execute. But because the bishops were not always equally zealous and cruel, these Dominicans assumed the power, and proceeded

to the bloody work, with infuriated zeal. This order has ever since furnished the world, with a set of inquisitors, compared with whom, all that had ever dealt in tortures, in any former times, according to Bishop Burnet, "were mere bunglers."

The efforts of the inquisitors were greatly assisted by Frederic II. Emperor of Germany who, in the year 1224, promulgated from Padua, four most ferocious edicts against heretics. The object of these bloody edicts, was chiefly to destroy the Waldenses, who were denounced in them, as guilty of high treason, and condemned to be punished with the loss of life, and of goods; and their memory to be rendered infamous.

Pope Innocent IV. endeavored to establish the inquisition on a permanent foundation. It was every where intrusted to the care of Dominican friars. But many of the most populous states, that were subjected to the see of Rome, never permitted the establishment of the tribunal among them. In France, it was early introduced, but soon after expelled, in such a manner, as effectually to preclude a renewal of the attempt. Nor has it been alike severe in every place, into which it has been introduced. In Spain and Portugal, this scourge and disgrace to humanity has for centuries glared with its most frightful aspect. In Rome, it has been much more tolerable. Papal avarice has served to counterbalance papal tyranny. The wealth of modern Rome has arisen very much from the constant resort of strangers from all countries and of all denominations. This would have been, in a great measure, prevented by such a horrid tribunal as existed at Lisbon and Madrid.

Exclusive of the cruel punishments inflicted by the holy office, it may be truly affirmed, that the inquisition is a school of vice. There the artful judge, grown old in habits of subtilty, along with the sly secretary, practises his cunning in interrogating a prisoner, to fix a charge of heresy. Now he fawns, and then he frowns; now he soothes, and then he looks dark and angry; sometimes affects to pity and to pray, at other times, insults, and bullies, and talks of racks and dungeons, flames and the damnation of hell. One while, he lays his hand upon his heart, and sheds tears, and promises and protests, he desires not the death of a sinner; but would rather, that he would turn and live; and all that he can do, he will do, for the discharge, and even for the preferment, of his imprisoned brother.

Another while, he discovers himself as deaf as a rock, false as the wind, and cruel as the poison of asps.

In no country, has the operation of this dreadful court of spiritual despotism, been more strikingly exemplified than in Spain.

The court of inquisition, although it was not the parent, has been the nurse and guardian of ignorance and superstition wherever it has prevailed. It was introduced into Spain, or promoted there, by Ferdinand and Isabella; and was principally intended to prevent the relapse of the Jews and Moors, who had been converted, or who pretended to be converted, to the faith of the church of Rome. Its jurisdiction, however, was not confined to the Jews and Moors; but extended to all those, who in their practice or opinions, differed from the established church. In the united kingdoms of Castile and Arragon, there were 18 different inquisitorial courts, having each its counsellors, termed *apostolical inquisitors*, its secretaries, serjeants, and other officers; and besides these, there were 20,000 *familiars* dispersed throughout the kingdom, who acted as spies and informers, and were employed to apprehend all suspected persons, and commit them for trial, to the prisons, which belonged to the inquisition. By these familiars, persons were seized on bare suspicion, and in contradiction to the established rules of equity, they were put to the torture, tried and condemned by the inquisitors, without being confronted, either with their accusers, or with the witnesses, on whose evidence they were condemned. The punishments inflicted were more or less dreadful, according to the caprice and humor of the judges. The unhappy victims were either strangled, or committed to the flames, or loaded with chains, and shut up in dungeons during life—their effects confiscated, and their families stigmatized with infamy.

This institution was, no doubt, well calculated to produce a uniformity of religious professions; but it had a tendency also to destroy the sweets of social life; to banish all freedom of thought and speech, to disturb men's minds with the most disquieting apprehensions, and to produce the most intolerable slavery, by reducing persons of all ranks in life to a state of abject dependence upon priests; whose integrity, were it even greater than that of other men, though in every false profession of religion, it is less, must have been corrupted by the uncontrolled authority, which they were

allowed to exercise. By this tribunal, a visible change was wrought in the temper of the people; and reserve, distrust and jealousy, became the distinguishing characteristics of a Spaniard. It confirmed and perpetuated the reign of ignorance and superstition; inflamed to rage religious bigotry, and by the cruel spectacles to which, in the execution of its decrees, it familiarized the people, it nourished in them, that ferocious spirit, which, in the Netherlands and America, they manifested by deeds, that have fixed an indelible reproach upon the Spanish name.

Authors of undoubted credit affirm, and without the least exaggeration, that millions of persons have been ruined by this horrible court. Moors were banished, a million at a time. Six or eight hundred thousand Jews were driven away at once, and their immense riches seized by their accusers, and distributed among their persecutors; while thousands dissembled and professed themselves Christians, only to be harassed in future. Heretics of all ranks and of various denominations, were imprisoned and burnt, or fled into other countries. The gloom of despotism overshadowed all Spain. The people at first, reasoned, and rebelled, and murdered the inquisitors; the aged murmured and died; the next generation fluttered and complained; but their successors were completely tamed by education; and until very lately, the Spaniards have been trained up by their priests, to shudder at the thought of thinking for themselves.

A simple narrative of the proceedings of the inquisition has shocked the world; and the cruelty of it, has become proverbial. Nothing ever displayed so fully to the eyes of mankind, the spirit and temper of the papal religion. Let us hear the description which Voltaire, a very competent witness, gives of it. "Their form of proceeding is an infallible way to destroy whomsoever the inquisitors wish. The prisoners are not confronted with the accuser or informer. Nor is there any informer or witness, who is not listened to. A public convict, a notorious malefactor, an infamous person, a child, are in the holy office, though no where else, credible accusers and witnesses. Even the son may depose against his father, the wife against her husband." The wretched prisoner is no more made acquainted with his crime than with his accuser; and were he told the one, it might possibly lead him to guess the other. To avoid this, he is compelled, by tedious confine-

ment in a noisome dungeon, where he never sees a face but the jailor's, and is not permitted the use of either books or pen and ink—or should confinement alone not be sufficient, he is compelled by the most excruciating tortures, to inform against himself, to discover and confess the crime laid to his charge; of which he is often ignorant. This procedure, unheard of till the institution of this court, makes the whole kingdom tremble. Suspicion reigns in every breast. Friendship and quietness are at an end. The brother dreads his brother; the father, his son. Hence taciturnity has become the characteristic of a nation, endued with all the vivacity, natural to the inhabitants of a warm and fruitful climate. To this tribunal, we must likewise impute that profound ignorance of sound philosophy, in which Spain lies buried, while Germany, England, France, and even Italy, have discovered so many truths, and enlarged the sphere of our knowledge. Never is human nature so debased, as where ignorance is armed with power.

But these melancholy effects of the inquisition are a trifle when compared with those public sacrifices, called *Auto de Fe*, or *Act of Faith*, and to the shocking barbarities that precede them. A priest in a white surplice, or a monk who has vowed meekness and humility, causes his fellow-creatures to be put to the torture in a dismal dungeon. A stage is erected in the public market place, where the condemned prisoners are conducted to the stake, attended with a train of monks and religious confraternities. They sing psalms, say mass, and butcher mankind. Were a native of Asia, to come to Madrid upon a day of an execution of this sort, it would be impossible for him to tell, whether it were a rejoicing, a religious feast, a sacrifice, or a massacre; and yet it is all these together! The kings, whose presence alone in other cases is the harbinger of mercy, assist at this spectacle, uncovered, seated lower than the inquisitors, and are spectators of their subjects expiring in the flames.

It is but justice, however, to say that many Catholics have abhorred this infernal tribunal almost as much as the Protestants themselves. This has been evinced by the opposition made to it in various countries.

[It is a subject of thanksgiving that this horrid engine of Satan is so weakened and circumscribed in its operations, if indeed at present (1825) it can properly be said to have an existence.]

Excepting this celebrated expedition, Philip II. did little during his inglorious reign, but murder and torment the Protestants in the Low Countries. Those provinces, at length, revolted from him, erected the standard of liberty, and, after a long and bloody war, gained their freedom and independence; which they maintained with dignity and honor. For nearly a century, they disputed the empire of the sea with Britain. But they no longer exist as a free people. They are forever swallowed up in the vortex of the French Revolution.

Whatever shadow of liberty existed in Spain, was obliterated by Charles V. and Philip II.; and their successors, though among the feeblest of princes, reigned and tyrannized at pleasure. When by the policy of Louis XIV. the crown of Spain was transferred to the house of Bourbon, it served rather to diminish, than to increase, the importance of the Spanish monarchy. Since France has become a *republic*, under the *mild* administration of Napoleon, Spain scarcely dares to assume the style or attitude of independence; but is submissively waiting to receive the fraternal embrace, which shall forever unite her to the *great nation*.*

The geographer will perceive Portugal on the map of Europe; and the historian will find, that it was once of

* From the iron grasp of the French, the Spanish were delivered by the English under Lord Wellington. "In the year 1808 Ferdinand VII. became king of Spain, in consequence of his father's abdication. He was soon after inveigled into France, where he was deposed and made prisoner by Napoleon, who placed his own brother Joseph upon the Spanish throne. A general revolt of the Spaniards ensued. The British supported them with numerous armies; and after various success, the French were finally expelled from the peninsula in 1813. In 1814, Ferdinand was restored to the throne, and proceeded to persecute the patriots, who had assisted in his restoration. After six years of oppression and misgovernment, a revolution was happily effected in 1820, and a free constitution established. Spain is now, therefore, a limited monarchy. It will not be surprising, however, if another revolution should soon plunge and bury her in the dead sea of despotism.* Still it is to be hoped, that a germ of liberty has taken root in that country never to be eradicated."

The above quotation is taken, with a few verbal alterations, from the admirable Atlas of Lavoisne, lately published with great additions and improvements by M. Carey and Sons; a work, that does very great honour both to the authors and to the publishers.—*Ed.*

* This has actually come to pass since the insertion of the above note.—*Ed.*

some consequence as an independent state. Its present insignificance, however, and its general dependence on its more powerful neighbors, render it not worth our while to notice its history, in this very cursory survey of nations.

The reader will indulge us in a few reflections on the history of Spain, before we quit the subject. It is allowed by all geographers, that Spain possesses a most delightful climate and productive soil. "No nation," says Guthrie, "owe so much to nature, and so little to industry and art, for their subsistence, as Spain." They have scarcely any winter. Their summers are long and delightful. Their lands produce, and almost spontaneously, all the substantials, as well as the luxuries of life. Nature seems to have designed it, as one of the most charming countries in the world. It is of great extent, and is surrounded by the noblest oceans and seas—has excellent harbors, and possesses, both internally and externally, every natural advantage, which a nation could wish.

But what is Spain at this day? What are its inhabitants, its government, and its character? Its population is thin; its inhabitants, if we may rely on the testimony of travellers, are a poor, lazy, idle, dirty, ignorant race of almost semi-savages. Their government, though despotic, is weak; and their name and character, as a nation, are contemptible.

This degraded state of the nation, may be principally attributed to the gold and silver, extorted from the mines of Mexico and Peru.* By an abundance of those precious metals, these people were aggrandized, corrupted, inebriated and undone. When they conquered Mexico and Peru, and it was discovered, that the bowels of the earth contained such inexhaustible treasures, they thought no object worthy of their pursuit but gold and silver, and of consequence, soon became dependent on their neighbors for every article of commerce. With these, they rewarded and enriched the industrious nations around them, and became themselves poor, proud and dependent.

By the same means, the Spanish colonies in South America were ruined. In imitation of their mother coun-

* Had the Spanish been enlightened Protestants, there is no reason to believe, that the effects of gold upon them would have been so dreadful. Nay, they might have been all that the British are now.—*Ed.*

try, they despised every pursuit, but that of digging up the shining ore. They despised agriculture; they neglected commerce; they disregarded every art and every science, but that of getting the precious metals. And what are they now? They are Spaniards, Indians and mongrels. They may revolt from Spain a thousand times; yet if they do not revolt from her character and conduct, and alter their own, it will do nothing for them. Mirandas may revolutionize them; but if they become not a laborious, industrious, agricultural, commercial people, they will only be transmuted from bad to worse; it will avail them nothing.

How different from their conduct, was that of the British colonies, now the United States! They had no mines of silver and gold. They had before them the boundless forest of an uncultivated continent, and beneath their feet, a productive soil, which they encountered with persevering industry. The forests melted away; the lands were cultivated; the people became numerous, prosperous and powerful; and, in less than two centuries, the country has become the most flourishing and happy in the universe.

Spain has had the advantage of very few men of uncommon learning or genius. The revival of literature was less beneficial to her, than to any other nation in Europe. She can boast, indeed, of a Tostatus, said to be the most voluminous theological writer, that ever wrote; but his writings, it is also said, are remarkable for nothing, but their bulk; and are shown as a prodigy, consisting, if we mistake not, of above fifty volumes in folio. Crushed beneath the double tyranny of kings and priests, the arts and sciences could never flourish in Spain. There the gloomy reign of superstition is seen at full length; and without any check, has displayed all its horrors. As to the people of Spain, it is of little consequence how soon they change masters. Their condition can scarcely be worse; nor indeed, is it likely to be made better.

CHAPTER VI.

CONTINUATION OF THE VIEW OF EUROPE, SINCE THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

FRANCE.

TO every Englishman, and to every American, the history of France, next to that of England, is by far, the most important of any European history. The French, for many ages, have been a brave, polite and scientific people. Since the times of Charlemagne, and especially since the reign of Francis I. the power of France, its central situation and profound policy, have given it an extensive connexion with all the principal concerns of Europe.

For the long period between the ninth and sixteenth centuries, the fortunes of France, like those of the rest of Europe, were fluctuating and unsteady. At each return of prosperity, however, they rose higher on the general scale, and gained a more commanding situation. In the first part of the fifteenth century, Henry V. of England, conquered France, and received, in Paris, the fealty of the French nobility, and the crown of France seemed apparently confirmed to him and his posterity. But, Henry dying in the 34th year of his age, the valor of the celebrated maid of Orleans restored the drooping affairs of France, settled the crown firmly on the head of Charles VII. and within ten years from her being a British province, she was again independent, more powerful than she had ever been, and nearly able to conquer Britain, then governed by Henry VI. the feeblest and most miserable of all the English monarchs.

In virtue of that conquest by Henry V. the kings of England have since pompously styled themselves kings of Great Britain, France and Ireland.*

Francis I. though one of the most accomplished princes of his time, spent a long reign in planning schemes of ambition, which proved abortive—in wars, generally unsuccessful, and in artful and tedious negotiations, at which he was a match for any of his cotemporaries. Disappointed in his

* The British king is now styled, "King of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, and so forth."—*Ed.*

hopes of being elected emperor of Germany, his whole life was a scene of rivalry with Charles V. the successful candidate for that high dignity. The slow and sullen temper of Charles, his cool and profound thought, and his firm and even courage, always gave him the advantage of Francis, when in projecting, there was danger from the undue influence of passion, or when in action, there was danger from temerity.

In the course of their contentions, which were perpetually embittered by personal animosity, and which could only end with life, Francis unfortunately became Charles's prisoner. An advantage so great and decided as this, would forever have ruined almost any prince but Francis. In the true spirit and character of a Frenchman, Francis bore this calamity with a more equal mind, than most men bear prosperity; and he soon gained his freedom. By an address, which few monarchs ever possessed in a greater degree than himself, he wound his tortuous course out of a labyrinth of difficulties, and found himself able once more to look his powerful rival in the face.

It is an uncommon case, that Francis, notwithstanding his numerous misfortunes and the failure of most of his favorite schemes, left his kingdom at his death, far more powerful, prosperous and respectable than he found it. It was his lot to contend with very potent enemies; but Francis was a most accomplished prince. Such was the benevolence, the amiableness, the urbanity of his mind and character, that his courtiers loved him as a brother; and his subjects in general, revered and respected him as a father. His more powerful rivals merited far less of their subjects, and enjoyed their affections far less, than he did. It is the remark of an excellent historian, that the reputation and fame of Francis have risen in proportion, as those who came after him had opportunity to perceive the permanent benefits, his administration conferred on his people.

It will be impossible to speak distinctly of the kings of France; it being the design of this brief survey, merely to convey to the young reader, a general idea of the rise, progress and character of nations. There is one event, however, in the succeeding reign, which renders it proper to call up the successors of Francis to view.

Francis I. was succeeded by his son Henry II. who was a prince not unworthy of the character of his illustrious father. His wars with Germany, were generally more

successful than those of his predecessor, whose hostile temper towards that neighboring power, he had largely imbibed. This prince took Calais from the English; since which time they have had no footing in France. He was killed at a tournament by count Montgomery, A. D. 1559.

The history of France, from this period, till the reign of Lewis XIV. commonly called the *Augustan age* of France, opens an interesting scene of policy, chicanery, the caprice of fortune, cruelty and bravery, with some virtue. Several great families and illustrious characters rose into public view. The houses of Guise, Conde and Bourbon became celebrated through Europe; and by their intrigues and conspiracies, influenced not only the French government, but shook its throne, and governed the politics of Europe. The Protestant religion had made great progress in France, and being espoused by many very powerful men, persecutions terminated in civil wars, and in some of the most horrid scenes of blood and cruelty, recorded in history. The horrors of the massacre of St. Bartholomew's day, August 24, 1572, exceed all the powers of description.

[*Massacre of St. Bartholomew's.*—Charles IX. the French king, had gained the confidence of the Protestants, or Hugonots, by caressing them in an extraordinary manner. The more effectually to secure this confidence, and to entangle their leaders in the snare laid for them, Charles offered his sister Margaret in marriage to the prince of Navarre. Admiral de Coligny, the prince of Conde, and all the considerable nobility assembled in Paris, to celebrate their nuptials. The queen of Navarre was poisoned by orders of the court, and the admiral was dangerously wounded by an assassin. Yet Charles, redoubling his dissimulation, was still able to retain the Hugonots in their security, till on the evening of St. Bartholomew's, a few days after their marriage, the signal was given by the ringing of a bell, for a general extermination of the Protestants. Charles, accompanied by his mother, beheld from a window, this horrid massacre. He greatly incited the fury of the Catholics, by firing himself upon the Protestants, and crying *Kill, kill!* Persons of every condition, age and sex, suspected of any propensity to Protestantism, were involved in an undistinguished ruin. The streets of Paris flowed with blood. Such was the rage of the murderers, that not satisfied with exterminating life, they exercised the most licentious barbarity on the bodies of the dead.

About five hundred gentlemen and men of distinction perished in this massacre, and nearly ten thousand of inferior condition. Orders were instantly despatched to all the provinces for a general execution of the Protestants. A like carnage ensued at Rouen, Lyons, Orleans and several other cities. Sixty thousand Protestants are supposed to have been massacred in different parts of France. At Rome and in Spain, the massacre of St. Bartholomew's was the subject of public rejoicings. Solemn thanks were returned to God, for its success, under the name of *the triumph of the church militant*. Among the Protestants, it excited incredible horror; a striking picture of which is drawn by Fenelon, the French ambassador at the court of England, in his account of his first audience after that barbarous transaction. "A gloomy sorrow," says he, "sat on every face; silence, as in the dead of night, reigned through all the chambers of the royal apartment; the ladies and courtiers clad in deep mourning, were ranged on each side; and as I passed by them, in my approach to the queen, not one bestowed on me, a favorable look, or made the least return to my salutations."]

The Protestants were led by the prince of Conde, and the Catholics, by the Duke of Guise, two of the most celebrated personages, as well as able commanders, of their time. Rivers of blood were shed; and all the resources of a great and numerous people were exhausted in various struggles; while it still seemed doubtful, whether the scale would turn in favour of Protestantism or of Rome. Murders, assassinations, massacres and plots of every kind, filled every corner of France with terror; the blackest atrocities incrimsoned the whole nation with guilt, and rendered it "a land of blood." The German princes, the pope, the kings of Spain and England were active, by their emissaries, in this scene of horror, and abetted each party, as interest or inclination prompted.

In the midst of these commotions, the celebrated Henry IV. ascended the throne of France. He gained that lofty eminence, by making his way through numberless impediments. Among many expedients, he resorted to one, which the politician may justify, but which the impartial narrator of truth cannot mention without disapprobation. He abjured the Protestant, and embraced the Catholic religion, as the only step, which could advance him to the throne; in which feint, he seems to have followed the ex-

ample of the celebrated Maurice; and he resembled him no less in his untimely death. This was regarded as a pious fraud; since it is generally believed, that he never altered his sentiments concerning religion; and that he still determined, as soon as opportunity should present, to favor and establish the Protestant cause. But Providence seems to have determined, that this unhappy country, so deeply polluted by the blood of innocence, should never be purged, but by the blood of the guilty.

As of the illustrious Henry V. of England, so of Henry IV. of France, we can only conjecture what would have been the result of a long reign, by the brilliant exploits, which he performed in a very short one—by the amazing energy, which he manifested—by the comprehensive views—by the amiableness, the elevation and grandeur of mind, he displayed, in so short a career.

Henry applied himself, with wonderful address, to the affairs of government, and especially to meliorate the condition of his subjects. In these important and benevolent pursuits, he was aided by the celebrated duke of Sully, the ablest statesman of his time. In 1598, he published the famous edict of Nantz, which gave free liberty of conscience to the Protestants, and allowed them in the public exercise of their religion. He encouraged, or rather founded, the silk manufactories in France.

This illustrious prince was assassinated in his chariot, in the streets of Paris, in 1610, by a wretched enthusiast, whose name should never have polluted the page of history.

The son and successor of Henry IV. was Lewis XIII. He, by the aid of the powerful and ambitious Richlieu, crushed, at once, the nascent liberties of France. He violated the rights of conscience, deprived the Protestants of every privilege, and put a period to the religious struggles, which had subsisted for nearly a century, and had destroyed above a million of men.

During Richlieu's administration, the famous Protestant league was formed among the Northern Powers; at the head of which, was the great Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. This formidable combination in favor of Protestantism, and which severely shook the German throne, originated in the profound policy of Richlieu, the very man, who had persecuted and destroyed that cause in France.

The reign of Lewis XIII. prepared France for the Augustus of modern times. He died in 1643, and left as his successor, his son, the celebrated Lewis XIV. then in his minority. The kingdom was disturbed and torn by factions and intestine broils. The Protestants gathering strength on the death of Richlieu and Lewis, were headed by a prince of Conde, far more celebrated than the former; and the Catholics were led by the truly famous marshal Turenne. The mother of the young king assumed the administration; and, by the policy of Cardinal Mazarine, not only governed France, but was able to manœuvre the diplomatic corps of every court in Europe.

The affairs of the French government had been conducted with such consummate skill, that Lewis XIV. when he assumed the reins, found himself one of the most absolute monarchs in the world. Early in his reign, he had the discernment and good fortune to appoint, as his first minister, the great Colbert, as he is very justly styled.

The glory of France has been essentially owing to the abilities and virtue of a series of great men, at the helm of administration. In this respect it is probable, that no other nation was ever so fortunate as France. For more than a century, without any cessation, the reins of government were holden with strength, stability, dignity and wisdom. They were held by men of the greatest genius, the most extensive views, the clearest foresight, and greatest regularity of system; in short, by men of the utmost grandeur and elevation of mind, always acting in reference to the sublimest views of national prosperity and greatness. Such were Sully, Richlieu, Mazarine, Colbert and some others. These things, however, cannot be said of them all, without some qualification. Though aiming, and that successfully, at national aggrandizement, yet some of their measures were dictated by a degree of cruelty, pride and injustice, which cast a mournful shade over the prospect—otherwise splendid and noble, almost beyond mortal perfection.

Lewis XIV. aided by such powerful men, enjoyed a reign, long, important, and, for the most part, glorious; to write the history of which, would be in effect, to write the history of Europe, during that period. The diplomatic science, if so it may be called, begun by his predecessors, he carried on with a much higher hand, and probably perfected. He found means to fill all the courts of Europe with penetrating eyes, listening ears, skilful hands and

nimble feet. He plotted, negotiated, intrigued, deceived, and cajoled. Men who were corruptible, he bribed; and even bought all such as were worth his money.

His abundant success in managing the concerns of England, can scarcely be read without laughter, or, at any rate, without admiration. England, at that time, just landed from a disastrous voyage on "the tempestuous sea of liberty," was governed by the second Charles, a prince who cared for nothing, but his pleasures and debaucheries. If Lewis found him rather an expensive retainer, he also found the unerring clue to manage him and his people. Money, disposed of with diplomatic skill, did the work. And it is almost incredible, that, in spite of all the virtue of England, Lewis did actually govern both parties then existing. He held them both in his hand at once, and unsuspected by them, penetrated the counsels, gained the confidence, and dictated the measures of both. Both whig and tory were his tools; and while he urged on the tyranny of the court, and inflamed the lawless ambition of king Charles, he blew up the living coals of patriotic fire, and organized a most extensive conspiracy, called the *Rye-house Plot*; in the bosom of which, he formed a still deeper plot, to assassinate the king, and revolutionize the government.

Into these dangerous and daring schemes, he drew many of the noblest lords of England, and still more of the *virtuous* commons, who were ready to sell their lives, to save their country; but who, through an unlucky mistake, sold their consciences, for filthy lucre. Lewis played the same game in several other courts of Europe, and particularly in Sweden, whose fall may be ascribed to French seduction.

The elevation of France, in this splendid reign, was not more conspicuous in her foreign relations, than in her internal circumstances. Lewis encouraged the arts and sciences; patronized men of learning; and his reign was adorned by several men, whose names are highly respectable in the republic of letters.

Ambition was the most conspicuous trait in the character of Lewis. But his reign was marked with various circumstances of injustice, cruelty and impolicy. The most notorious of these, was the revocation of the edict of Nantz, in 1685, passed eighty-seven years before, by his illustrious grandfather, Henry IV. This was little better than a law for exterminating the Protestants. They fled from his dominions in such multitudes, as to leave many places with-

out inhabitants. They carried with them, into other countries, and especially into England, the arts and sciences. He lost his ablest artizans and mechanics; and from that time and that cause, England gained the ascendancy over France, as a manufacturing country.

But the latter part of the life of Lewis XIV. as of Charles V. was as unhappy, as the first part of it was prosperous. His greatness could not raise him above adversity. For ten years, he experienced the bitterest reverses of fortune. The powers of Europe, alarmed at his overgrown greatness, and exasperated by his pride and insolence, formed a combination against him. Two men appeared in the field, who were able to humble his vanity, and rescue Europe from his oppression. The Austrian armies were commanded by prince Eugene, and the English, by the duke of Marlborough, one of the most celebrated commanders of modern times, and thought, by some, never to have been excelled in any age or nation. Marlborough and Eugene defeated and cut in pieces whatever force Lewis sent into the field; they took from him most of his conquests; they entered his dominions with their victorious armies, and spread a terror and consternation, not much inferior to that of Henry V. In short, they shook the foundation of his throne, and not only humbled the haughty tyrant, but made him tremble for his crown and empire.

This desolating war was closed at the peace of Utrecht in 1713; and France, by the preposterous policy of the British ministry, was saved from a victorious arm, which seemed able to have recovered and re-established the claims of Henry V. and to have given law to the *great nation*. Two years after the peace of Utrecht, on the first of September, 1715, Lewis XIV. expired, after having experienced the vicissitudes of fortune, and exhibited an example of this truth, that no mortal, however exalted, is beyond the reach of the shafts of adversity. Lewis might have said with his brother Charles V. that "Fortune, like other females, loves to confer her favors upon young men."

The ancient monarchy of France, especially during the Feudal System, was extremely limited. The spirit of freedom and independence, which prevailed in Europe, was no where more visible, than in France. The people held various important and powerful checks upon the crown. But these, for want of a proper balance and distribution of power, wore gradually away; and the royal

prerogative prevailed against justice and inalienable right. Yet still the flame of liberty would, at times, break forth and burn with great strength, till it was wasted by its own impetuosity, or extinguished by the regular advances of despotic power. Next to the reign of Augustus, that of Lewis XIV. was most successful in quelling, silencing, and utterly destroying, all notions of civil liberty and of equal rights. The French people were severely taught to tremble at the power and resentment of Lewis; they were fascinated by his artful, winning and insidious wiles; they were astonished and won over by his munificence; they were dazzled by his glory; and they were made to believe, that to "bask in the meridian blaze" of so splendid a monarchy, was their highest happiness.

The reign of Lewis XV. was distinguished by few events worthy of particular notice in this brief survey. Ambitious without abilities, and proud without energy, his life wasted away in the fading splendors of a court, so lately illuminated by a monarch of superior powers. During this reign, the principal objects, which will engage the attention of the reader of history, are the capture of the island of Corsica; the suppression of the Jesuits in France; the causes of the gradual decline of the power and importance of France among the powers of Europe. But for the investigation of these subjects, the reader must be referred to other histories of France.

On the 10th of May, 1774, the unfortunate Lewis XVI. ascended the throne. We have now arrived at a period, in which our readers are acquainted with many more incidents, than can have a place in this work. We shall close on this article by stating a very few things, which are most commonly known, concerning one of the most important, most eventful revolutions recorded in the annals of time; a revolution, which derives importance to us, on account of our commercial and political relations; and especially by reason of its very recent date, and the vast consequences likely to flow from it.

It has been generally thought, that France never enjoyed a more amiable, a more virtuously disposed monarch, than Lewis XVI. His misfortune from nature, if that can be called a misfortune, in which both kings and people are so generally involved, was the want of those extraordinary powers of mind, which are always useful, and, on certain emergencies, indispensable, in kings. It is doubtful whether,

if he had possessed the mental powers of some of his predecessors, he would not have suppressed the revolutionizing spirit, and preserved the tranquillity of his dominions. So far from doing that, when the storm arose, the weaknesses he betrayed, increased the tumult, drew destruction upon himself, and the guilt of innocent blood upon his country.

We often contemplate, with horror, the excessive sufferings of mankind, through the tyranny and oppression of their rulers. We as often wonder, that any rational being, endued with passions, and at all capable of self-defence or of revenge, will endure what so large a proportion of mankind endure from their fellow-creatures, who govern them. They are insulted, degraded and trampled in the dust. Their rights are torn from them—they are deprived of every enjoyment. The scanty earnings of their painful labors must be cheerfully given up, to pamper the luxury of a wanton wretch, before whom they must cringe, and bow, and adore. Why will they endure all this? Because, alas! their case is hopeless. Their disease admits no remedy. The experience of all ages and nations has confirmed and illustrated the truth, that insurrection, revenge and revolution, do but plunge them deeper in misery, and expedite their destruction.

Lewis XIV. as already noted, had extinguished every ray of liberty, and even of hope; and his immediate successor had neither virtue nor abilities to remedy the evils of the government, or the sufferings of the people. The clergy, the nobility, and the king, were each of them at the head of a separate system of tyranny; so that, in addition to the most cruel and odious oppression of the clergy, the people were crushed by an immense monarchy, and ground to powder by a still more formidable aristocracy. Many, therefore, took part in the revolution from a just and laudable desire to remedy their condition. Having little fear of a worse state, they were determined to try to obtain a better. A strong remembrance of the recent fall and ruin of the Jesuits, taught them how easily the most powerful men are overthrown, when the multitude are roused and determined to take vengeance.

The restless spirit, which predisposes many for tumult and commotion, was a powerful mover in the revolution. Such love to be in a bustle. The noise of an uproar is to them the sweetest music. Even the cry of *fire* gives them

a kind of ecstasy, provided their own hovel is not in danger. They love to rush with a multitude into enterprise; and by how much greater is their number, by so much fiercer their enthusiasm flames. Although such men are the scum or dregs of society, they are fit tools in a revolution; and seldom would any great and sudden revolution take place without them. Luckily for the revolutionist, they are found in abundance in all nations, and especially in France.

The more enlightened people of France, had no hope of erecting a free and virtuous republic upon the ruins of monarchy. Their utmost wish extended only to a salutary reform in the government. They wished to limit the royal prerogative, and open some prospect for the encouragement of industry and laudable enterprise, by giving security to property. No people will be industrious, unless they can be made secure in the fruits of their labor. The people of France had no security in this respect. A large portion of their income must go to replenish the royal revenue; another portion must be paid into the church-treasury, to augment the enormous wealth of tyrannical, haughty and vicious clergy. Besides all this, every poor man was liable to the exactions of his master, land-holder or temporal lord. Each of these species of exactions was ordinary or extraordinary; when ordinary, they took a great part of a man's earnings; when extraordinary, they took all. Thus a wretched laborer was often stripped of all he had, and then, to complete his misery, dragged to the fleet or army, and forced to leave his family to perish for want of bread.

To remedy these monstrously overgrown evils, benevolent people were willing to set a revolution on foot, tending merely to salutary reform. But, while they were carefully nursing the tender *infant*, and fostering it with gentlest hands, like Hercules, it rose formidable from its cradle, and crushed them to death, by thousands and by millions. In truth, the veil suddenly dropped from the eyes of the people, and they saw, in their full light, the horrors of their condition. With one universal, strong, reiterated struggle, they attempted to rise, and plunged themselves "*ten thousand fathom deep.*"

The prevalence of infidel philosophy, or, as it has been styled, Illuminism, in France, had a powerful influence in bringing about the revolution. Those philosophers, with great apparent justice, availed themselves of the enormous

corruptions of the religious orders, and the abuses of Christianity abounding in the church ; they ridiculed the idea of the divine right of kings, and artfully laid open the oppressive tyranny of civil government. Under a robe, which to the unwary observer, appeared pure and spotless, they concealed the most atrocious, vile and blasphemous sentiments, concerning all government, both human and divine. They set up human reason, as the only light, the only standard of authority, the only deity in the universe. They wished to bring mankind into such a perfect state of freedom, that all restraint upon their conduct should be laid aside, together with all distinction of property. They wished to abolish, absolutely, all law, to annihilate all obligation, and in a word, all distinction between virtue and vice.

This dangerous philosophy prevailed in France ; and among its disciples, were many of the most eminent literary characters in the kingdom. Indeed, it pervaded all orders of people ; and men of this description filled the universities, sustained the most important offices of state, and were, in great numbers, in the court, and about the person of the king. The savor of their doctrines, and the weight of personal influence, put in motion, by degrees, innumerable wheels and springs of the revolution ; and when they perceived things going according to their wish, they were at hand to project the most dangerous and daring schemes, and to develope the horrid extent of their views and wishes.

The armies of France had been eye-witnesses of the success of the American revolution. They had seen a glimpse of the independence, freedom and happiness of the United States ; and had imbibed a portion of the same heroic, invincible spirit, which animated the fathers of our happy country. Glowing with sympathy and delight, they carried the borrowed flame across the Atlantic. They painted, in lively colors, to their countrymen, the pleasing scenes they had witnessed ; and they affected, most powerfully, the imaginations of that gay and volatile people, with dreams of fancied bliss. They said to themselves, " Shall the Americans alone be free ? and must Frenchmen forever groan with painful servitude ? " Each peasant became a politician ; and freedom was all his theme. Liberty inspired the speculations of the philosopher and the maxims and dogmas of the sage. It resounded in the ditties of the milkmaid and plough-boy, and enlivened the songs of the shep-

herd and shepherdess. Unhappy people! Would to Heaven, you might have gained, and long enjoyed, that rational freedom, which you saw at a distance, but could never realize! In a word, the wild enthusiasm seized the lower orders; it ascended to the higher ranks of people, and surrounded and overturned the throne. Its progress was like that of fire; and its devastations like those of the destroying angel.

Multitudes of men pushed forward the revolution, actuated only by the base and selfish consideration, that a popular form of government gives power and consequence to much the greatest number of men; and of course, gives greater hopes of rising, to each individual. They view republicanism as a lottery, more favorable to their ambitious hopes, than monarchy. Such wretched patriots are the curse, the plague, the torment, and indeed, the final ruin and eternal disgrace of all republics. At first, they cannot be distinguished from the virtuous and honest man, who truly loves his country. They bring, of course, all honest men into suspicion. They use the language, and put on the garb, of virtue. They cover their designs so deeply with hypocrisy and lies, that they are often not unveiled but by their fatal and deadly mischief. Men of this cast, are far more useful in pulling down, than in building up, states and governments. Any incendiary can burn a palace; but a skilful artist alone can build one. The revolutionist seldom considers, that if he pulls down his government, and has not strength and skill to build another, he must either inevitably perish in anarchy, or must set some master workman to building for him; and that the fabricator of the new government becomes his new master, and often proves a greater tyrant than the former.

The general character of the moral and political writings, which prevailed in the latter part of the seventeenth and former part of the eighteenth centuries, especially in England and France, had a powerful influence in the great events, which have changed the face of Europe. But we shall close this article for the present, and reserve the nature and effects of this important revolution, to be considered, when, in a subsequent chapter, we shall speak of the present state of Europe.

CHAPTER VII.

CONTINUATION OF THE VIEW OF EUROPE.

NORTHERN POWERS.

THE northern powers, viz. Denmark, Sweden and Russia, may be considered under one head, as it relates to several essential articles of their general history. They make no figure in ancient history, and very little in modern, till since the beginning of the sixteenth century. The Danes, indeed, under Canute* the Great, after frequently invading, conquered England in the eleventh century, and established a new dynasty. This was overthrown by William the Conqueror; and the Danes make no appearance worthy of notice, till the fourteenth century; when, in 1397, Margaret, by the peace of Calmar, was acknowledged queen of Sweden, Denmark and Norway. The great abilities, with which she acquired and governed this immense dominion, gained her the title of *the Semiramis of the North*.

The political importance of Denmark has been gradually diminishing for several centuries. It has generally performed the office of satellite to some of the chief luminaries of Europe; and its history will be found to afford little to profit or to please.

The extremely imperfect view we have given of the North of Europe, renders it necessary, that we enlarge a little, in this place, to present to the reader, a more general sketch of the history of Denmark and Sweden. And as we cannot delineate, at full length, even a skeleton of modern nations, we have judged it most useful to touch upon such parts of the histories of these nations, as are in themselves most important.

* It was principally by Swein, the father of Canute, that the English were conquered; and it is a question, whether Swein should not be considered as the first Danish king of England.—It does not appear to be quite correct to say, that the Danish dynasty was overthrown by William the Conqueror. On the death of Hardicanute, 25 years before the Conquest, the Danish succession was set aside, and the Saxon line restored in the person of Edward the Confessor; and the Saxon line was continued in Harold, the successor of Edward, whom William conquered and slew.—*Ed.*

When we turn our eyes toward the North of Europe, we have before us, to use the elegant expression of Dr. Robertson, "the storehouse of nations," and as it has been often called "the northern hive." The countries beyond the Rhine, extending northwardly along the shores of the Atlantic to the Scaggerac sea, indeed, from the Adriatic to the Baltic, were anciently denominated Germany; and those countries in the early times of modern Europe were regarded as appendages of the German empire. The people of those countries, though extremely fierce and warlike, were of a grade of intellect far above mere savages. The Romans, in the height of their power, found them formidable enemies; and they were, at length, the conquerors of Rome, and the founders of the present nations of Europe.

We seem almost compelled to believe, that the northern parts of Europe, were once more populous than they are at present; and they certainly were far more warlike. If their populousness has experienced a decline, it must probably have been owing to the frequency of their emigrations, and to other causes of a less obvious nature. The refinements of modern times, in connection with the nature of their climate and situation, have produced effects on their governments, manners and customs, unfavorable to population and a martial spirit. On the one hand, they have not sufficient motives to industry; without which their cold and sterile climate must render them indigent and wretched. On the other, they have not sufficient exercise in arms, nor motive to war; without which they must grow effeminate and cowardly. In the history of governments, nothing is more astonishing, than that the sovereigns of nations have not been impressed with this truth, that their people will not be industrious without a motive, nor brave without an example.

Denmark, which had made a figure under the great Canute, in the eleventh century, and given a new dynasty of monarchs to England, appears little more in history for nearly two hundred years; when, for a short time, it rose and became illustrious under a female reign. Margaret was daughter of Waldemar III. king of Denmark. She had been married to Hacquin, king of Norway, who was the son of Magnus, king of Sweden. This commencement of her elevation awakened that ambition, and began to display those powers, which soon made her the greatest

monarch, that had ever reigned in the north of Europe.

Olaus, the son of Margaret, in right of his father, inherited the crown of Norway, that of Sweden, by his grandfather, and that of Denmark, by his mother. For although those crowns were then elective, yet that election seldom deviated from the lineal course, where there was a prospect of adequate abilities. But, Olaus dying, Margaret was chosen by the states of Denmark, who, already, had satisfactory proofs of her capacity to discharge the duties of that high station, while she had acted as queen regent of Norway. She was soon after elected queen of Norway. The Swedes, at this time, were governed by Albert of Mecklenburg, who having become odious by his tyrannies, they made a tender of their crown and fealty to the illustrious Margaret. At the head of an army, she marched into Sweden, expelled her rival, and immediately took possession of the throne and government.

Margaret, being now invested with the government of Norway, Sweden and Denmark, projected the scheme of the celebrated union of Calmar. At that place, she assembled the states of the three kingdoms, and by their united voice, a solemn decree was passed, the substance of which is comprised in the following articles ;

I. That Sweden, Denmark and Norway should thenceforth have but one sovereign ;

II. That the sovereign should be chosen alternately by each of these kingdoms, and that the election should be ratified by the other two ;

III. That each nation should retain its own laws, customs, privileges and dignities ;

IV. That the natives of one kingdom should not be raised to posts of honor or profit in another, but should be reputed foreigners out of their own country.

A minute detail of the reign of Margaret will not be expected. It will be sufficient to observe, that, considering the age, in which she lived, the rude and barbarous nations, over whom she swayed the sceptre, and the grand object she effected during her reign, few monarchs have been more capable of sustaining the weight of empire. Hers was one of the three female reigns, which have taken place in modern times, that will ever be illustrious in the annals of nations. The names of Margaret, Elizabeth and Catharine, are, at least sufficient to rescue

their sex from the indiscriminate imputation of weakness.

The union of Calmar, which took place in the last year of the fourteenth century, though it could not but remain unshaken during the vigorous reign of Margaret, from its nature, could not continue long. States and kingdoms cannot be permanently united, but by a union of interest, policy, manners and sentiments. The evident partiality, which Margaret had shown for her Danish subjects, became so visible in Eric, her successor, as to excite a general odium throughout Sweden. The Swedes, accordingly revolted from Denmark, and elected for their monarch Charles Canutson, descended from the family of Bonde. Soon after, however, they re-established the union of Calmar—thus revolting and returning again to their connexion, three times in the space of about fifty years; till, at length, they were conquered and enslaved, by Christian II. king of Denmark, known by the name of the *Nero of the North*.

These revolutions and struggles gradually diminished the power of Denmark, and opened the way for the final separation, independence and elevation of Sweden. Of this, we shall give an account somewhat more particular, which we take from Russell's *Modern Europe*.

In 1442 the Swedes revolted from Christian I. king of Denmark, and invested with the administration of their government, Steen Sture. The cause of this revolt may be clearly traced, in the extreme partiality of the Danish monarchs to their own particular subjects, which often led them into acts of tyranny the most atrocious, and even subversive of the fundamental articles of the confederation of those kingdoms. The succession of Sture's son to the regency of Sweden, although it was generally approved by the nation, was vigorously opposed by Gustavus Trolle, archbishop of Upsal and primate of Sweden. This haughty prelate, whose father had been among the candidates for the regency, persisting in his opposition to young Sture's administration, was at length besieged in his castle of Steeka, was taken prisoner, deposed by a diet of the kingdom, and stripped of all his offices ecclesiastical and civil.

Trolle, in his distress, made application to Leo X. a most powerful, accomplished and ambitious pontiff. The pope, ready to espouse the cause of the deposed primate, immediately excommunicated the regent and the party that adhered to him consisting of most of the nobility of Sweden.

The execution of this bull, Leo committed to the bloody Christian II. king of Denmark. The history of the following events, opens one of the most horrid scenes, recorded in the annals of mankind.

Pursuant to the order of Leo X. the king of Denmark invaded Sweden, with a powerful army. He was encountered by the Swedes in great force, and met with so severe a check, that he was forced to change his plan of open hostilities, for one of the most execrable and enormous treachery. He proposed to treat with the Swedish regent, and offered to proceed in person to Stockholm, provided the Swedes would deliver to him, six noble youths, as hostages for his own safety. These terms were accepted; and accordingly, six young men of illustrious birth, were delivered into the power of this bloody, perfidious monster, and were put on board the Danish fleet.

Christian, now supposing that he had all the advantage of the Swedes, necessary to bring them to any terms, instead of entering, as was proposed, into an amicable accommodation with the regent, immediately carried the Swedish hostages prisoners to Denmark. Of this number the celebrated Gustavus Vasa was one. Like the great Alfred of England, he learned in the school of adversity, those lessons of wisdom, temperance and fortitude, which afterwards enabled him to give law to the North of Europe.

In the following year, 1520, Christian II. returned to the invasion of Sweden, with a still greater force. Steen Sture met and encountered him, in West Gothland; but being entrapped in an ambuscade, was mortally wounded. The army of Sweden immediately dispersed; and the victorious Dane, thirsting for blood, marched directly for Stockholm. On his arrival at the capital, he found nothing but terror, irresolution and despair among the Swedes. Trolle, however, now resuming his archiepiscopal functions, under the conquering standard of Denmark, immediately proclaimed Christian king of Sweden. The victorious monarch affected the greatest possible clemency, and swore to govern Sweden, not as a conqueror, but in a manner mild and beneficent, as though he had been chosen by a regular diet of the empire, and by the voice of the people.

His coronation feast was sumptuous and superb. To this, all the senators, grandees and nobility of Sweden were invited, and indeed allured by the apparent generosity, openness and munificence of the new king. After the feast

had lasted three days, in the midst of the greatest security, hilarity and joy, the archbishop reminded the king, that although he had pardoned all offences by a general amnesty, yet no satisfaction had been given to the pope, in whose holy name, he now demanded justice. An army instantly rushed into the hall, and secured all the guests that were obnoxious. The archbishop immediately opened his spiritual court, proceeded against them as heretics, and condemned them to death. A scaffold was erected before the palace gate; and ninety-four persons were executed; among whom was Eric Vasa, father of the celebrated Gustavus, who was, at this time, a prisoner in Denmark.

Thus fell the nobility of Sweden, accused of no crime, but that of defending the liberties of their country. And when we consider all the circumstances of this horrid butchery, and especially, that it laid claim to the sanction of Christ's benevolent religion, there is not a more shocking occurrence to be found in history. The subsequent account of this barbarous tyrant leaves little room to doubt, that Divine Justice saw fit to make itself visible for his punishment, even in this world. Death often lurks in the insidious smiles of a tyrant; and the voice of all history and of all experience loudly declares, that he is never to be trusted.

It shall suffice to observe, that Christian II. soon experienced a total reverse of fortune. His crimes and cruelties rendered him odious to the people of his own kingdom. He was deposed by them, and compelled to flee, a wretched exile into the Low Countries. He endeavored in vain to obtain the assistance of Charles V. his brother-in-law; and after various struggles, died miserably in prison; "a fate," says our author, "too gentle for so barbarous a tyrant." Frederic, duke of Holstein, Christian's uncle, succeeded to the throne of Denmark and Norway; and as for Sweden, she not only shook off the Danish yoke, but we shall presently see her giving law to the North, and menacing the South of Europe.

In the mean time, Gustavus Vasa, with the other five hostages, was treacherously imprisoned in Denmark, as before mentioned. From prison, he soon found means to escape, and finding himself pursued, fled in disguise, and hid himself in the mines of Dalecarlia, where he labored for his daily support with the miners. Among the rude inhabitants of that country, he soon began to attract

admiration. They were charmed with his popular talents and winning address. His form was athletic, noble and commanding; and his uncommon strength and agility gave him a ready ascendancy among his rustic associates. Perceiving their utter detestation of the tyranny of the Danes, he took the opportunity of disclosing to them his extraction, at an annual feast. He made himself known, and offered himself as their leader, by a just war, to set his country free, and avenge the blood of her most illustrious patriots.

The people listened to him with astonishment; and regarding him as a savior sent from heaven, they flocked from all quarters to his standard. He immediately attacked the Danish governor of the province; and taking his castle by storm, put the Danes to the sword. In short, nothing could exceed the rapidity of his motions; and in wars and revolutions, celerity is always the best insurance of success. He crushed all opposition; every impediment yielded to his genius, valor and good fortune, till he ascended the Swedish throne. His reign was one of the most illustrious in the annals of Europe.

During this time, Christian II. the Danish Nero, had fallen, and, as already stated, was succeeded by Frederic of Holstein. Frederic in 1533 was succeeded by Christian III. considered as one of the wisest and most amiable monarchs of that kingdom. Sweden and Denmark were now both favored with great and virtuous princes, who made the happiness of their subjects their chief aim and highest glory. The pope, who had played such bloody games by the hands of his atrocious instruments, now lost all ground in the North of Europe, and the Protestant religion was established both by Gustavus and Christian III. in their respective kingdoms.

The reign of Christian III. terminated with his life in 1558, and that of Gustavus Vasa, in 1560. Their memory is still, and will ever remain, dear to their subjects, and famous in history. Gustavus, indeed, may be considered almost as the founder and father of his kingdom; very much resembling, as already noticed, the great Alfred of England. His reign was long and prosperous. For the space of nearly forty years, he maintained the glorious character of a patriot king. Though his cotemporaries, Charles V. Francis I. Henry VIII. and Solyman the Magnificent, reigned over fairer realms and more polished people,

they merit a lower place in the temple of fame, than Gustavus Vasa. They involved their subjects in expensive wars, to gratify their own ambition, and crushed them beneath a spiritual tyranny in doing honor to the *Beast*. But Gustavus rescued his people from a foreign yoke, diffused among them, the arts and sciences, and delivered them from the Egyptian bondage of spiritual despotism.

Few events had, as yet, laid open the immense regions of Russia and Siberia to the view of history; nor has that extensive country, till a late period, made any appearance in the concerns of Europe. As early as 1470, John Basilowitz I. grand duke of Muscovy, threw off the yoke of the Tartars, under which that country had long remained. He soon reduced Novogorod and Cassan, and received the imperial diadem of that country under the title of Czar, which in their language signifies king or emperor, as that of Czarina does empress or queen. To these territories his grandson John Basilowitz II. added the extensive countries of Astracan and Siberia, in 1554. In this reign, a treaty of commerce was formed between Russia and England, then governed by queen Elizabeth.

The family of this prince soon becoming, in a manner, extinct; Russia was harassed with a rapid succession of usurpers, and civil wars, till Michael Theodorowitz, son of Romanow, bishop of Rostow, assumed the government; and was able in 1618, to establish a peace with Sweden and Poland. This Michael, by the mother's side, was descended from the Czar John Basilowitz; and in his person, was again established the ancient dynasty. Alexius succeeded his father Michael. He left his dominions to his son Theodore, both improved and extended. Theodore on his death bed, appointed Peter, his half brother, as his successor, to the exclusion of his own brother and sister, Ivan and Sophia. This was he, who was afterwards called Peter the Great. As on the death of Theodore, Peter was very young, Ivan and Sophia endeavored to exclude him from the throne. Various struggles were excited; and the existence of the empire seemed to be threatened by the prospect of civil wars, and the most violent commotions. The fortune of Peter, however, at length triumphed; and after publicly executing above 3000 of the malcontents, he found himself in quiet possession of the throne.

When Providence designs to make a great man, some door is generally opened for his doing something almost

peculiar to himself. The illustrious course pursued by Peter, was struck out by his own surprising genius, even while unaided either by elegant literature, or that speculation, which is the result of long experience. In 1697, he retired from his empire, and travelled as a private gentleman in the retinue of three ambassadors, with a view of visiting various nations of Europe, and especially those most famed for industry, economy and the important and useful arts. At Amsterdam, he made a considerable stay, where, as incredible as it may seem, he entered himself in one of the principal dock yards, as a common laborer, and fared like other journeymen. At the same time, he engaged with the utmost application in the study of navigation, commerce, surgery and the various branches of natural philosophy.

Thence, he passed into England, where king William received him with marks of respect, due to the imperial traveller and student. In England, he completed his knowledge of naval affairs; and, after the expiration of nearly two years, he returned to Russia, accompanied by several men skilled in the arts and sciences.

The whole life of Peter was spent in the rapid formation and still more astonishing execution of those grand schemes, which may be said to have given existence to the most extensive empire, ever known. But before we proceed farther with this history, it will be proper to call the reader's attention once more to the history of Sweden.

Gustavus Vasa, of whose life and character we have taken some notice, was succeeded in the Swedish throne successively by his sons Eric and John. The former, far different in his character from his father, was deposed in 1568, and the latter died in 1592, leaving his kingdom to his son Sigismund, already king of Poland. Sigismund, in attempting to re-establish the Catholic religion, was also deposed by the Swedes in 1600, and his uncle, Charles IX. was elevated to the throne. The son and successor of Charles IX. was the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus.

In 1611, Gustavus, upon his father's death, was declared of age, and ascended the throne, though only in his eighteenth year. His kingdom, on his accession, was enfeebled by a partial subjection to Denmark, which had existed, since the times of the great Margaret. He found *its* internal concerns in the utmost disorder—distracted by

divisions, and torn by intestine broils. All his neighbors, the Danes, the Poles and Russians, were at war with him, and had already infested his territories with great armies, taking encouragement from his youth and inexperience, and the known weakness of his kingdom. The great Adolphus, on this occasion, showed how far the power of genius transcends even experience itself, and all the artificial acquirements that are within the reach of man. At one effort, he dispelled the storm of invasion; at another, he silenced all intestine commotions. Before him, went victory and triumph; and tranquillity and order marked his footsteps. His enemies, every where met with defeat and disgrace, while he extended his conquests, humbled all his neighbors, and nearly made himself master of Russia.

Soon after this, by the policy of Cardinal Richlieu, as already mentioned, Gustavus was appointed head of the Protestant league, for opposing and humbling the house of Austria. His life opens one of the most amazing series of splendid actions, recorded in history; and when we consider the power of the enemies, whom he as uniformly conquered, as encountered, we shall see reasons for comparing him with Hannibal, if not preferring him to that great warrior. Finding no equal in the North, he bent his course southwardly, and by a course of victories, penetrated the heart of Germany. He defeated the famous Count Tilly, the Austrian general, long thought invincible; and gained a victory equally complete over his successor Walstein. But this victory cost him his life. He was unfortunately killed, after the field was won; and with his dying breath, made the prophetic declaration, that he had sealed the liberties of Germany with his blood. Had he lived, it is thought he would have put a period to the German empire.

The virtues and abilities of no hero or conqueror, ever shone with greater lustre after his death, than did those of Gustavus Adolphus. They long survived him in the armies which he trained, and in the generals which he formed. The names of Bernard, Torstension, Bannier, Wrangel and some others, will be celebrated to the latest posterity. Those generals continued the war after the death of Gustavus, and gave a blow to the power of the house of Austria, which it has never fully recovered. Oxenstiern, the first minister of Gustavus, who managed the affairs of Sweden during the minority of Christiana, his daughter and successor, by his consummate skill, enabled

that princess, in a measure, to dictate the peace of Westphalia in 1648.

With the great Gustavus and his generals, the fame and prosperity of Sweden seemed to expire. Christiana, in 1654, six years after the peace of Westphalia, resigned her crown to her cousin Charles Gustavus. The life and adventures of this celebrated princess, exhibit the most surprising extremes of magnanimity and weakness—of elevation of mind, and perversion of taste. The adventures, through which she passed, would furnish ample materials for the writer of romance.

Charles Gustavus, who was the tenth of that name, was a prince of considerable abilities, and gained some advantages in a war with Poland; but his reign lasted only six years. He died in 1660, and was succeeded in his government by his son Charles XI. who was an odious and impolitic tyrant. So far from imitating the examples of several of his illustrious predecessors, he used his utmost power to oppress and enslave his people. During his long reign, though apparently successful in several wars, his kingdom and the Swedish name were falling from that important and splendid rank, they once held in Europe.

In 1697, by the death of Charles XI. the throne of Sweden was left vacant to the famous Charles XII. his son and successor, than whom, probably, no mortal man ever breathed more constantly the spirit of war. But, instead of possessing the great qualities of Vasa and Adolphus, he seemed capable of nothing but war and conquest. Headlong as a tiger, he rushed forward, as if only solicitous to fight, with very little regard to prospects of advantage, or the favourable moment.

While such a tiger, however, was about to be let loose in the North of Europe, a lion, if we may keep up the metaphor, was prepared still further north, to keep him at bay, and set bounds to his lawless rage. Peter, justly styled the Great, had just returned to his own dominions, enriched with discoveries and improvements, calculated to aid him in the grand scheme of civilizing the North of Europe and Asia, when Charles XII. though but eighteen years of age, ascended the throne of Sweden. The views of Charles relative to the conquest of Russia, may well be compared with those of Alexander in relation to the Persian empire. But had Charles acted with that prudent caution, which governed Alexander's counsels and movements he

might have avoided those disasters, which ruined himself and his kingdom, even though he had failed in the main object of his ambition.

The wars of Charles, however, were tremendous; and his name soon became terrible through the world. But he was too rash and impetuous to execute his plans by means, which were necessary to give permanence to his success. He fought in all directions, and was generally victorious. He humbled all his adversaries except *one*, and struck terror into all his neighbours. He dethroned Augustus, king of Poland, new modelled the government of that kingdom, and caused Stanislaus, a creature of his own, to be invested with that sovereignty. But his whole plan of operations may be clearly traced to his great design of subduing Russia, which issued in the battle of Pultowa, fought on the 11th of July, 1709. With a brief sketch of the circumstances leading to this decisive battle between Charles and Peter, we shall close this article, and refer the reader to the details of the events in the history of those times. While Charles, mad with his design of becoming a second Alexander and conquering all mankind, was with the utmost diligence preparing the way for his operations against Peter, the latter by a stretch of masterly policy, unequalled in its kind, was widening his resources, fortifying his power, improving his immense empire, and strengthening the basis of his throne. The victorious standard of Charles, in 1707, which had been displayed in Saxony, to the terror of all Germany, was removed, and again seen in Poland. Thither, at the head of 43,000 men, Charles now proceeded to oppose the Russian arms, which during his absence had been employed in favor of Augustus, the dethroned monarch. From Lithuania, where he had for some time been, Peter directed his march toward the river Boristhenes, avoiding for the present a general battle with the Swedish hero. So near were the two armies, that Charles arrived in the city of Grodno, on the same day, that Peter left it. But the pursuit was in vain.

The sovereign of Russia, on this occasion, displayed that wisdom and prudence, which seemed the prelude to his future triumph. Finding himself in his own dominions, and justly fearing the consequences of so terrible a conflict, as seemed approaching, he sent an embassy to the king of Sweden, with proposals of peace. Charles returned for answer, that he would treat with him at Moscow. The

Czar's remark, when this haughty answer was brought him, gives us a trait of the character of the two rivals. "My brother Charles," said he, "always affects to play the Alexander; but I hope he will not find me a Darius." The celerity of his retreat defeated all hopes of overtaking him; and the Swedish monarch consoled himself by pursuing his march toward Moscow. But in this, he found no small difficulty. His army suffered incredible hardships, in pursuing the course of the Czar, who, aware of his approach, had destroyed all means of subsistence, and indeed almost every vestige of human habitation. Vast forests, morasses and extensive solitudes presented before them, scenes of desolation, and the alarming prospect of destruction. Through these dreary wastes, the Russians moved with safety, being in their own country, and led by a great commander, who knew well how to avail himself of his own resources, and to leave behind him, nothing to facilitate the progress of his pursuer.

Charles, though now determined to march to Moscow, was compelled to alter his line of march, and by a more circuitous course, to pass through places, whence some supplies might be derived for his army, now nearly perishing with fatigue and want. The north of Europe abounds with vast forests and trackless wilds, almost impassable even in the summer season, and now clothed with double horrors, by the approach of winter. The ablest officers of his army remonstrated against penetrating those inhospitable climes, in the winter season. Count Piper, on whom he had ever placed much dependence, earnestly recommended it to him to remain in the Ukraine, a province lying along the river Boristhenes, till the winter, which at that time was intensely severe, was past. He, however, crossed that river, and advanced to the banks of the Disna, beyond which, he perceived a Russian army posted to resist his passage.

He crossed, however, and continued his march, making a slow progress into the Russian territories. Hovering parties of the enemy added continual surprise to his painful and perilous march; and numbers of his men daily perished through the inclemency of the season. Wearing away the winter in those frosty regions, he at length arrived, on the 10th of May, at the town of Pultowa, where was an important magazine of stores and necessaries, of which the Swedish army was in great want. But Pultowa was de-

fended by a garrison of 9000 Russians; and the Czar himself lay not very far distant, with an army of 70,000 men.

The attack of Charles upon this place, which was strongly fortified, was one of the most daring enterprises ever attempted by any commander. For that reason, he could not be dissuaded from so rash a measure. In spite of every effort of the Swedes, the town could not be reduced before the arrival of the Czar with his main army; and Charles, although wounded in his heel by a musket ball, determined to give him battle. He ordered his army to advance and attack the Russian camp. The Swedes, long inured to victory, made a formidable onset, and not without impression. The Russian cavalry was broken, but soon rallied behind the infantry. The king of Sweden, borne in a litter, animated his troops, and displayed all the talents of the soldier and hero. But he contended against superior fortune. On the side of Peter, there were equal skill and bravery with greater numbers. The Swedes fought with astonishing fury, for two hours; but were exposed in the face of a tremendous train of artillery, which the Czar, whose arrangements for the battle were masterly, had opened upon them. Their charge upon the Russian line, proved ineffectual; and their defeat, which was inevitable, was only announced by their destruction. 9000 Swedes fell on the field of battle; and the army of Charles was utterly ruined. Charles himself, with a small party of horse, escaped with difficulty, and hastily crossing the Boristhenes, fled with a few attendants to Bender, a town in Moldavia, in the Turkish dominions.

Charles XII. never recovered from this humbling stroke, which seemed for a while to give respite to the North of Europe; and was certainly followed by vast consequences to that part of the globe. But there never was a more restless man than Charles. He continued to struggle, negotiate and fight, as long as he continued to breathe; which was about nine years from the battle of Pultowa. For a particular account of the various fortunes and adventures of this extraordinary prince, the reader is recommended to peruse Voltaire's history of him. As already noticed, he threw himself into the power of the Turks, determining never to return to his own dominions, but as a conqueror. He persevered in this resolution, for several years; but was compelled to break it at last. Constantly

fomenting intrigues, commotions and wars in all directions, he could never lay aside his design against Russia, nor indeed his hope of subduing that mighty empire.

Thus passed the life of Charles, till in December, 1718, he was killed before the town of Fredericshall, in Norway, by a cannon ball. After he was struck by the ball, he only had time to lay his hand upon his sword, grasping which, he expired.

All historians, who speak of him, allow him to have been one of the most extraordinary men who ever lived. Had his prudence been equal to his courage, energy and ambition, he would have equalled, if not excelled, all other conquerors. The disasters of his reign gave a blow to Sweden, which she has never recovered. She has been declining during the last century, and has now become but a secondary power in Europe.

Peter the Great, happily delivered from so troublesome and dangerous a neighbour, for the remainder of his reign, had little to frustrate his favorite schemes for improving his empire. He built a city at the head of the gulf of Finland, which, he determined, should bear his name. In the space of a century, Petersburg has become one of the most splendid cities in the world. Peter displayed the grandeur of his mind more in the arts of peace, than of war. He projected a union between the river Dwina, the Wolga and Tanais, thus to open a communication between the Baltic, Euxine, Caspian and Northern seas. In short, no prince, ever did more to enlighten, improve and adorn his empire.

Peter was succeeded by his wife Catherine I. and she, by Peter II. who, after a short reign, died in 1730 of the small pox. He was grandson to Peter the Great, whose direct male line, in him, was extinct. The throne was next filled by Anne, second daughter to Ivan, eldest brother to Peter the Great. She was succeeded by Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great; Elizabeth, by her nephew Peter III. and he, by his wife Catherine II. a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst; whose reign almost eclipsed the glory of that of Peter the Great. She was succeeded by her son Paul; he, by the emperor Alexander; and he, by his brother Nicholas.

GREAT BRITAIN.

CHAPTER VIII.

CONTINUATION OF THE VIEW OF EUROPE.

GREAT BRITAIN.

THE history of most nations is but the history of war and destruction to the human race. The mind is perfectly fatigued and disgusted in reading of nothing but fighting, killing, murder, treason and desolation. In the history of England, the mind is often relieved with a most pleasing variety of prospect. It is the history of arts and sciences, of philosophy and government, of commerce and agriculture; and, to show, that the English people are of one blood, and of one spirit with other nations, there is also the history of revolutions, of treasons, plots, massacres and desolating wars.* But the English people exhibit a surprising and illustrious example of mental energy and excellence. They have been able to give transcendent importance to a comparatively small island, and that for a long time.

Great Britain is an island much smaller than Borneo, or Madagascar, or Nippon, or some others, which might be named; yet, for nearly twenty centuries, it has held an important rank among the nations of the earth, and is now mistress of the sea. In a former chapter, we noticed Egbert, at the head of the Saxon Heptarchy, about the year 800. The successors of Egbert were exceedingly harassed by the Danes; who at length planted themselves on the sea coast, and seized all the finest parts of England.

The great Alfred, the deliverer of his country, and as he is styled, the father of the English constitution, was the grandson of Egbert. When all was given up for lost, and the Danes were considered as masters of England, the "immortal Alfred" suddenly broke from his concealment, where he had, for some years, been hidden in the deepest disguise and remotest recesses. He erected the standard of his native country, which soon became a rallying point.

* Besides foreign wars innumerable and almost incessant, the English have had, according to the enumeration of Le Sage, 16 civil wars and 9 religious commotions, since the Conquest. In the language of Goldsmith, England may well be denominated a *land of scholars and a nurse of arms.*—Ed.

With a small body of men he encountered and defeated the Danes. The rapid rumor of his success drew multitudes to his standard. The Danes were every where defeated, and, in a short time, expelled from the island.

Perhaps no monarch ever more justly deserved the title of *Father of his country*, than Alfred. After the incessant wars had subsided, which made him powerful and independent, he set himself, with the greatest energy and industry, to improve his kingdom. He founded the university of Oxford in 895; he rebuilt the city of London; he divided England in counties, hundreds, &c.; he revived the trial by jury, and gave dignity, purity and despatch to the courts of justice. In a word, it may be said, that he did his utmost, to diffuse individual happiness among his people, as well as to give his kingdom the external marks of dignity and splendor.

The reign of Alfred was long and prosperous. No prince was ever more beloved by his subjects; and he died in peace, full of days, and covered with glory, in 901.

The successors of Alfred, for more than a century, were employed in wars with the Danes, with various, but at length, with declining success. In the first part of the eleventh century, Canute the Great, king of Denmark, completed the conquest of England, and established himself on the English throne. In 1035, he left his deminions to Harold, who, after a short and inglorious reign, was succeeded by Hardicanute, in whom the Danish race of kings became extinct; when the ancient line was restored.

The Saxon race was restored in the person of Edward the Confessor; but in him was again deprived of the crown.* In 1066, he was succeeded by Harold the Usurper, the son of the famous Godwin, earl of Kent.

The British crown seemed now to be unsettled, and, in a measure, at the disposal of the common chances of war. William of Normandy, a prince of great territorial resources, and of still greater abilities for war, prepared to assert his claim to it—a very specious claim indeed, but the origin of all monarchical claims; for, as Brennus told the Roman ambassadors, “The right of conquerors lies in their swords,” William’s claim was grounded wholly in his power; † and he was successful. Accompanied by many

* Harold was a Saxon, though not of the royal family.—*Ed.*

† William professed to found his claim to the English crown upon the will of Edward the Confessor, though it does not appear, that Edward ever expressed any such will in writing.—*Ed.*

soldiers of fortune, whom the fame of his abilities and the splendor of his enterprise had drawn from all parts of Europe, he made a formidable descent upon the English coast, and landed without opposition. He was soon met by Harold at the head also of a powerful army. Few fields have been more sharply disputed; arguments of great strength were used on both sides. Their claims and great exertions, in point of merit, as well as in point of strength, were nearly equal. Each of the rivals, as well as many of their followers, had the same grand objects in view; each fought for life, crown, empire, honor, glory and everlasting fame. The eyes of all Europe were anxiously turned toward the scene; and the pen of the historian was ready to transmit the event to unborn ages. Great bravery was displayed on both sides.

Harold fell in battle; and William seized, without further opposition, the august prize. He found it, however, more difficult to retain, than to acquire, the crown of England. He was kept in continual alarms; and his life was endangered by daring plots and conspiracies. His jealousies of the English people, which were not increased without cause, occasioned universal alterations in the internal police of the kingdom. He deeply infringed the ancient constitution; and, at length, breaking over all restraint, he caused innumerable confiscations, and, by suborned evidence, the most unjust and cruel attainders of treason. He nearly exterminated the ancient nobility; and by degrees, effected a conversion of the property of the whole kingdom.

From the time of William the Conqueror, to the reign of Henry VIII. the history of England presents a variegated and interesting scene. The Henries and Edwards were, generally, both statesmen and warriors. It will be impossible to go into a particular consideration of their respective reigns; but we must beg the reader's permission to pass over this very considerable period, with a few general remarks.

During this period, the struggles between the three orders, viz. the king, lords and commons, were incessant, and, at times, had well nigh involved the kingdom in ruin. The great lords were often too powerful for the crown, and for the commons. They held their castles and strong fortresses in all parts of the island; and, where a union happened to combine their strength, they seemed often to

bid fair to do, as Poland has since done to its own utter ruin—that is, to overturn the throne, and enslave the people. Of all governments in the world, perhaps, an aristocracy is the worst. It is like a hydra with a hundred heads; it is restless, because ambitious; and weak, because disunited; it is miserable, because experienced without virtue; and contemptible, because wise and crafty without power. The time proper for action, is consumed in deliberation; and the lucky moment passes unimproved.

While the English government leaned chiefly toward this form, the nation was feeble, and liable to innumerable divisions; and, owing to this cause, had been easily subjugated by the Saxons, Danes and Normans. The undue power and influence of the great lords, remained firm and unshaken, and must have ultimately terminated in the ruin of the nation, had it not received a fatal blow by the policy of Henry VII. who so far abolished the feudal tenures, as to enable the nobility and great peers of the realm, to alienate their landed estates, which before his time, they could not. This occasioned a change, and a much wider distribution of property, and had a tendency to produce a juster balance in the powers of government.

The extraordinary abilities, fortunes and characters of several of the English monarchs, contributed greatly to establish, unite, and dignify the nation. Perhaps no nation in Europe, at this early period, was governed so ably and so wisely. Several of the Henries and of the Edwards were men of the most consummate abilities. We have already mentioned Henry V. With his name, we may associate that of Edward III. who is called the father of the English constitution. He was equally great in war; and held, during his glorious reign, no less the confidence and veneration of his subjects, than the dread of his enemies.

It was the peculiar felicity of England, to derive benefit from their worst, as well as from their best and ablest, princes. They had several kings, who would answer well to be put upon the black list of Roman emperors. But, even those disgraceful reigns were directly or indirectly productive of good. In the contemptible and inglorious reign of king John, was laid the corner stone of English liberty—the main pillar of that mighty fabric of power, wealth, political wisdom and safety, which has enabled the people of that island to hold, at times, the balance of

Europe ; and by which they now hold the empire of commerce and navigation, and are able to unfurl their triumphant flag throughout the whole world of waters.

The *Magna Charta*, or Great Charter, is a bill of rights, founded on the most obvious principles of natural and civil justice ; and regarding it as a human invention, among all the nations of the world, if we except the United States, nothing can be found either in ancient or modern times, equal or comparable to it. It demonstrates that, even in the 13th century, the English nation far excelled Greece and Rome in political wisdom and virtue. And the constitutions and bills of rights in our own happy country, are but children from that illustrious parent. Whether the English nation are as wise in the 19th, as they were in the 13th century, the writer does not pretend to say. They doubtless, need as much wisdom.

There is, perhaps, no reign recorded in the annals of history, more weak and miserable, or of much greater length, than that of Henry VI. Yet the struggles and revolutions during that tempestuous reign, were, by no means, the convulsions of death ; but, if we may use a phrase sometimes used by physicians, they were the *vis medicatrix naturæ** of the kingdom. Old Warwick, *the king-maker*, was then alive ; and queen Margaret could well fight the battles of her husband. The invincible spirit of the nation was often roused ; nor was it restored to tranquillity, without laying some stone in the national fabric, which was destined, for many ages, to resist the billows of time.

In the period now before us, the reader of English history, will find his attention drawn to one of the most extraordinary civil wars, in which any nation was ever engaged. It was a contention between the house of York and Lancaster, for the crown of England. Both descended from the ancient royal line. These wars, after having embroiled the kingdom, during several successive reigns, and cost much blood and treasure, were happily ended on the accession of Henry VII. to the throne, in whom both claims were united.

No monarch ever mounted the English throne under greater advantages, than Henry VIII. It is supposed, that his father, at his death, A. D. 1509, possessed more ready money, than all the other monarchs of Europe. His kingdom was powerful, united, and at peace with the neighbor-

* The healing power of nature.—*Ed.*

ing powers. His treasury was full ; and he was himself a prince of great abilities. But Henry, with all these advantages, was a vain, odious, unprincipled tyrant. His pride and vanity could be measured by nothing but each other ; because they were both unbounded. He was false, cruel, capricious, fickle, and of a temper overrun with the meanest jealousy, and the most vindictive resentment. His tyranny seemed always to flow from mere malice and depravity.

Providence, however, employed him as an instrument to humble the pride of a still greater tyrant, than himself, the Roman pontiff. His most celebrated exploits, (for he never seemed ambitious of war,) were his matrimonial connections and dissensions, his separation from the church of Rome, his founding the English church by making himself and successors the head of it, (a temporal head to a spiritual body,) and his composing a prayer book and forms of worship for the same.

The support which Luther's Reformation in Germany received, from several of the most powerful princes of the empire, had already made a great and irretrievable infraction upon the See of Rome. But an event took place in England, which gave a still more deadly wound to Popery. Henry VIII. had conceived an attachment to Ann Boleyn, a young lady of his court, of great beauty and accomplishments. But he found it impossible to marry, and make her the partner of his throne, without finding a pretext for divorcing his queen, Catharine of Spain ; and he soon found one to his wish. Before he married her, she had been the wife of his brother Arthur. The king's conscience suddenly grew remarkably susceptible, and he shuddered at the idea of having lived so long in the horrid sin of incest. The matter, however, was no sooner suggested, than all imputations vanished. It appeared that his marriage was legal, and that nothing existed which could, in the slightest degree, tarnish the reputation of his virtuous queen.

But what satisfied others, could by no means satisfy Henry. His conscience grew more clamorous ; and his scruples every day increased.* Finding he could effect nothing at home, he made application to the pope, for a dispensation of divorcement. The pope, after a full hear-

* It is probable, that, at first, the scruples of Henry were altogether hypocritical ; but that afterwards, he was really convinced, that his connection with Catharine was unlawful.—*Ed.*

ing of the cause, rejected the application in the most peremptory terms. Henry persisted. The pope threatened. Henry divorced his queen, and married the lady Ann. The pope thundered a bull of excommunication against him, and laid his kingdom under an interdict, absolving his subjects from their allegiance.* Henry, on his part, met the pope's bull by another bull as stout, and excommunicated the pope. Thus the separation of England from the Romish church, began; and various causes, of a more pure and laudable nature, gave it strength and stability.

The cruelty and crimes of Henry increased with his years. The noblest blood of England flowed, to satisfy his savage barbarity. Even the beautiful Ann Boleyn, whom he had married, and raised to his throne, found neither in her charms, nor virtues, any security, from the jealousy and rage of this infernal monster. Upon a slight suspicion of inconstancy to the king, she suffered death. But we will not waste the reader's time in tracing the atrocities of a villain of the first magnitude, who, considering his superior advantages, deserves to sink into the shades of eternal infamy, ten thousand degrees below Nero or Domitian.

The death of Edward VI. in his 16th year, left the throne vacant to Mary, justly styled the *Bloody Mary*. Her administration was distinguished by nothing but weakness and cruelty. The flames of persecution were lighted up all over the kingdom; and the names of Bonner and Gardiner will descend, with infamy to all posterity, as being the base instruments of her cruelties.

Mary died in 1558; and her short and inglorious reign was followed by one of a character opposite in all respects. † Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. by Ann Boleyn, succeeded her sister Mary, in her 25th year, and continued to govern England 45 years. The chief traits of her administration were energy, sagacity, a good share of justice, able

* The above representation is, in some respects, incorrect. The pope did not reject Henry's application. On the contrary, he greatly encouraged his hopes. The pope, however, delayed and temporised, till Henry was out of all patience. Nor does it appear that Henry's kingdom was laid under an interdict, or his subjects absolved from allegiance; though he was indeed excommunicated.—*Ed.*

† Perhaps the idea, that goodness is a constituent of greatness, led the author to form an opinion of Elizabeth, by many degrees too favourable.—*Ed.*

counsels, a profound and extensive policy, and what Cicero calls felicity, or good fortune. Few monarchs ever held the reins of government with a stronger, more steady, or more cautious hand, than queen Elizabeth; yet with all these, were blended, a slight tinge of the vanity of her sex, and of the arbitrary cruelty of her father.

Under such an administration, as might be naturally expected, many important objects were accomplished. The internal structure of the English government received vast accessions of strength and perfection. The Reformation, begun by Henry VIII. and attempted to be destroyed by Mary, was rendered permanent under the reign of Elizabeth. The Protestant cause in Europe received countenance, credit and support from so powerful a friend. Confusion was poured upon the gloomy counsels and sanguinary designs of Philip II.; and the English navy acquired universal respectability by its brilliant victories over the Spanish fleets.

Elizabeth was succeeded by James VI. of Scotland, and I. of England; under whose crown was united the sovereignty of the British island. The only great exploit in which James excelled other men, was his discovering the powder plot; which would, otherwise, have escaped the sharpest eyes in England. The Catholic faction had contrived to bury 36 barrels of gun-powder under the parliament house, where the king, lords and commons were, on a certain day, to be convened. The plot, though entrusted to nearly a hundred persons, had been kept a profound secret for eighteen months; and was within a few days of its consummation, when a certain member of the parliament, received an anonymous letter, of the most singular contents, warning him to abstain from attending the parliament. The letter was communicated to the king, who laid it before his privy council. When all were at a loss, and many concluded it to be a mere ridiculous whim, the king gave it as his opinion, that a plan was laid to blow up the parliament with gun-powder. On searching the vaults of the house, the powder was found; and Guy Fawkes, a daring villain, was taken with the matches in his pocket, for firing the magazine.

James, with all the pride of royalty, which any monarch needs, had neither genius nor ability to govern. The contrast between him and Elizabeth, was striking. He was weak, superstitious, timid, and of course jealous. His

administration laid the foundation for the misfortunes and fall of Charles I. who succeeded him in 1625.

The revolution of Cromwell, and the history of England since that time, are generally well understood. To enter particularly into the several important articles of that recent period, would protract this work far beyond our original design. We must therefore pass it over with a few general remarks; and only add here, that Charles I. fell a sacrifice to his own folly and imprudence in Cromwell's revolution. After Cromwell, Charles II. recovered his father's crown and dominions. James II. succeeded him—a prince less wicked, indeed, than his brother, Charles II; but more weak and foolish, than his father, Charles I. He was deposed, and succeeded by William, prince of Orange. William was succeeded by Ann, and she by George I. II. III. and IV.

Cromwell's revolution, professedly set on foot in the cause of freedom, seems to be a convincing proof, that a limited monarchy is that form of government, above all others, best adapted to the character of the English nation. It is said by Judge Blackstone, the reader may judge how justly, that the English government comprises the excellencies, and excludes the defects, of the three leading forms of government. There is a monarch, whose prerogative is limited; an aristocracy, whose powers are defined; and a democracy, whose privileges are guarded. If their theory is better than their practice, they are not alone.

The English nation have exhibited one mark of wisdom, energy and virtue, above all other nations. After so great, so dangerous, so wasting a revolution, as that of Cromwell, they seemed to rise, not like Samson after he had lost his hair; but like one who is made virtuous by affliction, strong by exertion, and wise by experience. The vicious, inglorious and troublesome reigns of the house of Stewart, following that revolution, could not prostrate a nation, which seemed made, not for the tool, but the scourge, of tyrants.

Since the commencement of the 17th century, the progress of the British nation in all the arts and sciences, has been truly astonishing, and has outrun all calculation. From her universities, have issued an immense constellation of learned men, equally useful and ornamental to the world. Locke and Newton, from their innumerable excursions into the material and intellectual worlds, irradiated the minds of men with beams of knowledge, which lay hidden from

the wisest of the ancients. Others have improved upon their foundations; and every art and science has been pursued, improved, and brought nearer to perfection.

The national debt of Great Britain is a matter of admiration in every point of view. Upon it, the mathematician, the financier and the statesman have wasted even the midnight lamp in calculation. It has been made, by theorists, the subject of controversy, of applause, of ridicule. It has exhausted the powers of tongues and pens without number. It has often called up the spirit of prediction; and political augurs have foretold its final term and destiny. This immense debt, if that may be called a debt, which is debt in one hand, and credit in the other hand of the same body politic, has been accumulating, for more than a century, and, in 1799, was about 500,000,000*l.* sterling. It is much more now: but the latest calculations we have not at this instant before us.* This subject opens various fruitful sources of doubt. It is doubtful, whether this vast debt can ever be paid. It is doubtful, how long it may continue to accumulate consistently with national tranquillity; and it is equally doubtful, whether to annihilate it by a revolution, would not be fatal to the kingdom.

The commerce and naval force of Great Britain, are subjects of admiration, equal to that of the national debt. Her commerce extends to all parts of the world; and her navy is more than equal to all the navies of Europe beside. By means of her power by sea, she has subdued, or rendered tributary, the finest parts of India, and many of the most productive islands in the ocean. Into her immense capital, rivers of incalculable wealth are daily pouring, from all parts of the world. Her India-trade has opened by far the most extensive, lucrative and dignified systems of commerce ever known; and the merchants and nobility of London are able to make a display of diamonds and pearls in their dress, equalling, if not exceeding, the most superb courts of Asia.

The reign of George III. will be considered in history, as an important and glorious reign. The loss of jurisdiction over the American colonies, if an evil at all, is trifling, in comparison with the vast accessions of power and wealth, which Great Britain has made, during the present reign, in

* In 1819, it was estimated at 3,748,200,000 dollars; more than 844,000,000*l.* sterling. In 1826, at 900,000,000, nearly 4,000,000,000 dollars.—*Ed.*

other parts. She can derive as much benefit from the trade of the United States, as before the revolution, which made them independent. Had they maintained their colonial relation, her chief benefit must always have been of a commercial nature; and that she may still enjoy, if she will treat them with good manners. George III. has not been celebrated as a statesman, a warrior, or a monarch. He has, however, some marks of a wise prince. He has not wanted for able and wise counsellors, in his cabinet, great commanders by sea and land, and men of integrity and talents at the heads of the several departments of government. By these, he alone, of all the monarchs of Europe, has been able hitherto, to resist the madness and rage of a revolution, which in its formidable progress, has changed the face of Europe, and still threatens to destroy its liberties.

CHAPTER IX.

CONTINUATION OF THE VIEW OF EUROPE.

THE ECCLESIASTICAL STATE.

FROM the first part of the 7th century, the Ecclesiastical State has been one of the most powerful and important in the world. Its powers were professedly of a spiritual or religious, but in reality, of a temporal nature; indeed, we may go so far as to say, they were carnal, sensual, devilish.

In the book of Revelation, it is said, that John saw a woman sitting upon a scarlet-colored beast; which beast had seven heads and ten horns. The woman had written in her forehead the names of Blasphemy; and she was called, *Mystery, Babylon the Great, the mother of harlots, &c.* This woman is considered as representing the church of Rome; and the beast on which she sat, the temporal powers, which gave her support. Its seven heads,* according to some writers, represented the seven hills, on which ancient Rome was built, or, according to others, the seven

* Probably the seven heads are doubly emblematical, representing, at once, the seven hills of Rome and the seven forms of the Roman government. See Rev. xvii. 9, 10. *Ed.*

forms of government, which have been exercised over that empire; and the ten horns, the ten kingdoms, over which Rome once reigned with a temporal, and afterwards with a spiritual dominion.

It must be confessed, that the symbols are striking, and the allusions extremely just. At any rate, the power of the supreme pontiff, who became universal bishop, A. D. 606, the same year that Mahomet forged the Koran, was very great. His interdict upon a nation suspended the performance of all religious rites, and cut them off from communion. He could absolve a nation from their oath of allegiance to their king, and give them a right to dethrone and destroy him at their pleasure. Such was the superstition of those times, that when a nation was interdicted, they were considered as exposed to the immediate wrath of Heaven; the greatest consternation prevailed; and their streets would be filled with men, women and children, with garments rent, hair dishevelled, beating their breasts, and deprecating the divine vengeance. The sovereign pontiff had power to pardon all manner of sins, and even to grant indulgence for the commission of the most enormous crimes. He claimed infallibility; and, as Christ's vicar and vicegerent on earth, held the keys of heaven and of hell. From the enormity of these claims, which were sometimes in the hands of the vilest and most profligate of mortals, we may conjecture, into what extremes of wickedness, they would go.

They went into all possible extremes; and, indeed, exceeded any conception which one can form, who never read the history of their proceedings. Princes and the greatest emperors have been known to stand barefoot at the gate of the haughty pontiff, patiently waiting for admittance; and when admitted, the holy father would set his foot upon their necks, and tread upon their crowns. In this manner, one of the popes treated an emperor of Germany; but they could not tread upon the neck of Henry VIII.

Since the reformation in Germany and England, the papal throne has tottered. While Henry IV. governed France, his favor to the Protestants hastened the decline of that formidable hierarchy; and even Lewis XIV. though he destroyed the Protestants of his own kingdom, yet he aided their cause in the person of Gustavus Adolphus, who headed the Protestant league against the house of Austria. After Gustavus failed, William III. of England, and queen Ann, by the duke of Marlborough, severely shook the throne of

France, and for a while obtained the most splendid triumphs for the Protestant cause ; by which of course, the church of Rome was weakened.

The French revolution threatened, for a while, the extinction of Popery ; but the emperor Napoleon, fearing the force of the old maxim, *No bishop, no king*, has become a friend to his Holiness, and has re-established the Catholic church in France. But the weakness of Spain, Portugal and Italy ; the reformation of Germany and England ; the irreligion of France and, indeed, the common sense of mankind, have at length reduced the bishop of Rome nearly to a level with other bishops. His vices are censured ; his virtues are credited ; his ghostly power is despised ; his infallibility is laughed at ; and he is little thought of among the rulers of states and empires.

Since the fall of the ancient Romans, there has nothing existed in Europe, like universal empire ; therefore, by the course of empire since that time, nothing more can be intended, than a series of states or kingdoms, which, all things considered, have been more powerful than their neighbors. On this subject, there may be different opinions. Were we to represent the course of empire by a line drawn through individual kingdoms, we should draw it thus ; through *Assyria, Persia, Greece, Carthage, Rome, Constantinople, Turkey, Germany and France.*

CONCLUSION.

Thus have we pointed out to the student, the general outlines, or the mere skeleton of what he will find in reading the history of nations. As a man, who stands on an eminence, and looks attentively over a wide and diversified prospect, so is the historian.

Through the long period of five thousand years, his eye wanders among innumerable millions, and descries people, nations, and languages, who were once active in the busy scenes of time, but are now reaping the retributions of eternity. The great nations, which enjoyed universal empire, are now silent in the dust. And, as objects subtend a less angle in proportion to their distance, so a century, buried deep in the vale of antiquity, appears but as an hour, and the duration of a nation, but as a day. In the morning, its infancy is weak ; and its chief defence is in its obscurity or insignificance, or in the weakness of others. It gathers

strength by adversity, and at length acquires a vigorous youth. At mid-day, it acquires a strong and lofty attitude ; it basks for an hour in the beams of prosperity, and drinks deep the inebriating draughts of luxury and pleasure. And now its beauty fades ; its strength decays ; its glory perishes ; and the declining day hastens a night of storms and clouds and everlasting darkness.

The nations of men resemble the perpetually rolling and conflicting waves of the ocean. If a billow rise high, it is but to sink as low ; if it dash its neighboring billow, it is but to be dashed in its turn ; if it rage and foam, it is but to exhaust itself the sooner ; if it roll tranquilly on the bosom of the deep, it is but to sink forever by its own gravity. It is thus with all nations, with all human institutions, and with all the noblest inventions and works of art.

“ The cloud-capt towers, the gorgeous palaces,
The solemn temples, the great globe itself ;
Yea, all which it inherit, shall dissolve,
And, like the baseless fabric of a vision,
Leave not a wreck behind.”

And alas ! the ravages of time, though rapid and restless, are too slow to satisfy the furious rage of restless mortals ! They must share the empire of destruction. To them, the work of death is most pleasant ; and to cultivate the art of killing and destroying, has been their chief pride and glory in all ages, though while employed in that dreadful work, they sink in destruction themselves. Unhappy children of men ! When will you learn to know and to prize your true interest ? When will you be convinced of that, than which nothing is more certain, that war adds infinitely to the number and weight of your calamities ? that it fills the world with misery, and clothes all nature in mourning ? that it covers your souls with crimson, inexpiable guilt, and brings upon you, the wrath and curse of Heaven ?

Is there to be no change in this tragic, this direful scene of blood and slaughter ? Shall brotherly love and cordial affection never become universal ; and peace never wave her white banner throughout the earth ? Is there no durable institution, founded in virtue, and permanent, as the eternal rules of justice ! Is there no firm ground of hope ? no rock, on which truth and reason may build a fabric, that shall never fall ? Yes ; there is a *Kingdom* ; its foundations were laid of old ; its king is the *God* of heaven ; its law is

perfect love; its dominions are wide, for they extend to the wise and virtuous in all worlds; all its subjects are safe; for they are defended by almighty power; and they shall rise to eternal prosperity and glory, when all earthly kingdoms shall vanish, like a shadow or a dream.

There is an unseen hand, which guides the affairs of nations. Throughout all their changes and revolutions, through the seemingly dark and troubled chaos of human concerns, an almighty Providence overrules; and all events, past, present, and to come, are employed in directing and completing the destinies of all creatures, in subserviency to that infinitely great and glorious kingdom, which shall never be removed.

CHAPTER X.

THE PRESENT STATE OF EUROPE.

THE great alterations in the affairs of Europe, since the French revolution, and the continual changes, which are taking place, render the subject before us very difficult. Before these sheets are published, the state of Europe may be considerably changed from what it now is. As it may affect the political relations of that quarter of the globe, we can only say, that a great revolution is now on the wheel. Whether it will be stationary, progressive, or retrograde, we cannot tell. Events may be in embryo, which will defeat all calculation, and render the state of Europe better or worse, than it ever has been.

KNOWLEDGE.

Europe, in point of knowledge, has held the ascendancy, for more than two thousand years, over the other quarters of the globe; and we shall hazard the opinion, that a comparison of the present, with all former periods, will be found highly favorable to Europe at the present time.* In the most flourishing periods of Greece and Rome, knowledge, or mental improvement in general, was limited to a

* Most of the literature of Europe is to be found in Britain, France and Germany.—*Ed.*

few places. If we take into view all the Greek and Roman territories, it is probable, that not one to ten among the Greeks, and not one to a hundred among the Romans, knew *how to read and write*; but, at the present time, it is probable, that more than one third of the people of all Europe, can do both. The art of printing has filled all places with books, and brought the means of knowledge within the reach of mankind in general.

Yet how many millions, even in that quarter of the globe, are still enslaved by ignorance and error. The peasants in Poland, Sweden, Denmark and Russia, are the most ignorant people in Europe. They are bought and sold with the farms, on which they live; and their lives are at the disposal of the great lords, who own them. Yet they know no means of relief. They do not, in many instances, know, but that all is right. Like a beast of burden, they bow to the yoke; and if they often groan with painful servitude, they seldom think of deliverance. The manners and habits of those nations are so firmly fixed, their prejudices so deep and strong, that there is little prospect of any alteration for the better.

It is matter of surprise, that the more enlightened and wise part of society in those nations, even that their governments, who consist of great and accomplished statesmen, well acquainted with all Europe, do not reason more correctly, and act more consistently toward their peasantry. They certainly know, that industry cannot exist, where it is not encouraged; that nothing can awaken enterprise, but a prospect of great gain, that their peasantry have no encouragement to industry, and no stimulus to enterprise. They see them to be a poor, miserable, ignorant race, as void of ambition as beasts, yet without their docility. Their farms are consequently unimproved; the ancient forests maintain their ground, and even wild beasts make head against them. In times of peace, their agriculture, their commerce and manufactures are neglected; and in time of war, if we except Russia, their armies are contemptible.

The poor of these nations should be encouraged, first of all, by giving them instruction, and then, by placing before them, the proper motives to industry.

It has been often questioned, whether the prevalence of knowledge in society would not tend to sedition, disloyalty treason and rebellion. Experience determines this question

in the negative.* The most knowing people have been generally the most easily governed. Government scarcely exists among savages. In barbarous countries, there is always a continual succession of turbulent rebellions and revolutions. It will not be denied, that the English nation, taken as a body, are the best instructed and wisest people in Europe; and their government is the most regular and permanent.

It is a general observation, that the most learned and best informed people, have the best government in practice, at least, if not in theory, and commonly in both. For example, the governments of France and Germany are better than those of Spain and Russia; and the people of the former are certainly better informed, than those of the latter. The government of Poland has been remarkable for weakness; that of Turkey, for strength. But both have been equally corrupt and wicked; and the people, who live under them, are the most ignorant of any in Europe. The letter and spirit of the Russian government consider all its subjects as slaves, or even machines without will. They live quietly under such a government, because they are without understanding.

It is an important question, how far a continual and rapid increase of knowledge, among all classes of people, would go toward remedying the evils of all governments, and even toward abolishing the system of war, now pursued by most nations. It is also an important question, to what extent learning might be carried in society, consistently with its true interests. It would be vain and useless to establish the former, without previously ascertaining the latter question.

No nation, and doubtless no state, has carried the system of education to that height and perfection, which would best promote its internal well being and honor. No individual town, even in New-England, has pursued this object in proportion to its importance. To open this subject for

* It was undoubtedly knowledge and mental improvement, that enabled the people of this country to perceive their wrongs, to assert their rights, and shake off the British yoke. If a government is founded and administered in equity, for the manifest benefit of the people, knowledge and mental improvement must conduce to its stability; and they must equally tend to excite rebellion against tyranny and oppression. No doubt, it is good policy for tyrants to keep their subjects in ignorance.—*Ed.*

discussion, we will suppose an extreme case, and from that extreme, will descend to such means, as must be acknowledged to be attainable.

For the sake of illustration, we will suppose, that every man in Europe had the knowledge of Sir William Pitt; we will say nothing about virtue; the perfection, or prevalence of which, among men, is never to be looked for as the fruit of their exertions. A change would gradually or suddenly take place in all the governments of Europe. A man, when he knows his true interest, will naturally pursue it. The present oppressions of Europe are generally mere impositions upon ignorance and simplicity. The poor peasant firmly believes, that he was born to serve, and his lord, to rule. He believes, that his body is made of coarser materials, that his blood is less rich, and that his soul, if he knows he has one, is from a humbler stock of intelligence. Give him knowledge, raise him within the sphere of Pitt's intelligence, and all these delusions vanish. He sees the faults of his government; he sees a remedy within his reach; he pursues, and gains it.

He would never suffer with the poor ignorant wretch, who knows not—who thinks not, even in his dreams, of a better state. The ignorance and servility of the poor, are at once both the cause and effect of their poverty. And certainly it invites and allures the impositions, the aggressions, the domination and insolence of men of stronger minds.

After all that has been or can be said of the power of wealth, "The mind's the standard of the man." Give the lower orders of people in Europe but the intellectual powers of the higher—give them the mental cultivation, the ambition, the fire of genius; and the wall, which separates them, will fall to the ground.

It is readily granted, that all men can never acquire the knowledge of William Pitt. But how vastly ignorant is the bulk of the people, in the most enlightened nations! and with what ease their minds might be raised, almost infinitely above what they are. Let the expense of education rest on the government, empowered to draw sufficient funds from the nation. This is indeed, partially the present method of the New-England States. And from this very source, they are the freest, happiest, and most enlightened people on earth.

No doubt it will be said, that this is theory. What then! Is nothing worthy of regard, which admits of theoretical

speculation? Is not the education of youth an object worthy the attention of government? If it could be regarded as such, as it ought universally to be, certainly, no governmental object ever outweighed it—no earthly one ever more justly demanded legislative wisdom. It was the opinion of Lycurgus, that the partial affection of parents for their children, disqualified them for exercising government over them. Admitting this as an extreme, we would have government interfere no farther with children, than to point out the nature and extent of their education, and provide and pay their teachers.

It is no very uncommon thing for boys to be graduated in our colleges, at sixteen years of age. If then, we except the Greek and Latin languages, every boy might receive a liberal education, before he is fit to become an apprentice, or go into a counting house. Nor should his improvements be limited here. Other institutions should be formed, to extend the mind, and to carry into manly maturity the seeds of honor, truth and justice, liberally planted in youth; yet of a nature, not to interfere with a course of business.

If the funds necessary to defray the expenses of these important institutions, were raised from an equal assessment of property, it would seem at first view, to bear heavy on the rich, especially if they had no children. But, for what more important purpose *can* the rich and childless pay their money? Do they not pay freely to support war, government, and almost numberless public institutions? and is the formation, the well being, the glory and prosperity of the rising generation, an object inferior to any of these? But, in effect, it would not bear hard upon the rich; for there would soon be very few poor. I appeal to the present, though imperfect practice of the New-England States. There are fewer poor among them, than in any other part of the world.

There is nothing wanting then, but virtue in mankind, nothing indeed but a proper direction even of selfishness itself, to effect far greater improvements in society—far more light and knowledge, than ever existed in any nation. These improvements, so far from being prejudicial to government, would soon originate governments, which the individual happiness of men would induce them to love and support. And these governments, whether monarchies or republics, would enjoy the confidence of the people, and those who administered them would possess a power far

more permanent and illustrious, than they can in the present system of things. As there must always be, in every nation, rulers and ruled, the security and happiness of the latter will forever guarantee those of the former.

Should it be objected, that there could not be a change in these respects in Europe, without revolutions and effusions of blood; neither can things remain in their present state without the same. There is one revolution upon another; there will be treasons, rebellions and bloody wars. Tyrants never had, and never will have, rest.

If the several governments in Europe would begin to effect this glorious reform, by opening to their subjects, the fountains of knowledge—by setting before them the proper motives to virtue and industry, they would find domestic concerns sufficient to call their attention from foreign wars; and the millions of money, employed in cultivating the art of war, would be employed in promoting the grandest objects of human happiness.

But who shall begin this salutary work? What power—what potentate has magnanimity sufficient? No mention shall be made of virtue, they only want the knowledge of their interests, and the means of happiness is within their reach.

INDUSTRY.

There are but few industrious nations in Europe. The wealthy despise it; and the poor have not the proper incentives to it. The Dutch have, perhaps, been excelled by no European nation in this respect; but their industrious days are over. A rapacious and powerful master now stands ready to seize what they have got, and to anticipate what they may get hereafter.* The Turks, the Italians and the Spaniards are nearly on a footing as to industry. Among them, a soft relaxing climate has completed all the idle and vicious habits, which their governments naturally

* In the year 1806 Napoleon erected Holland into a kingdom; and his brother Lewis was crowned king. In 1810, Lewis was constrained to resign his crown; and Holland was united to France. In 1813, Holland was emancipated from French usurpation and tyranny. The next year, Belgium, or the French Netherlands, was united to Holland. In the following year, 1815, these countries were formed into a limited monarchy with a liberal constitution. This monarchy is denominated *The Kingdom of the Netherlands*.—Ed.

induce. Their rulers seem determined, that they shall have nothing ; and the people, lost to all ambition and sense of freedom and honor, have become willing, that it shall be so, and are willing to possess nothing. They, therefore, live in a very poor, and, at best, in a precarious manner. With their present exertions, they would literally starve, did they not live in very fruitful countries, where nature produces almost spontaneously for their sustenance.

The people in the North of Europe are compelled to labor, or they must perish. But their toil is ill directed, and without any spirit of enterprise, although severe. They cannot work with courage, and surmount difficulties with cheerfulness ; because they are strangers to the animating hope of acquiring wealth, or even a comfortable living. Whatever they get must go to pamper the pride of a haughty, tyrannical master, who can hardly be willing they should breathe the vital air without paying a tax for it. So stupid and extreme is the folly of the governments themselves, that their exactions are an effectual check even upon the spirit of commerce ; and all the means of the people, in general, to acquire any degree of opulence, are completely fettered.

This is eminently the case in Sweden and Denmark. *Their governments know it ; their kings, their ministry, their philosophers and all their statesmen and wise men know it ; yea, and much more than all this, they well know that while things remain in this state, they can never flourish.* They must be poor, feeble, faint-hearted and wretched, always ready to join the basest and most cowardly, but never capable of a noble enterprise. They know all this ; and yet they will, with their eyes open, strive to maintain the present mad system. They will keep it up, till they are the scorn of Europe—till they share the fate of Poland—till their kings, ministry, statesmen, philosophers, wise men and men of learning, shall all fall a prey to their own preposterous folly—till they shall have their houses burned, their throats cut, their kingdoms destroyed, and their territories *sown with salt.*

Germany and France, while they have loaded industry with almost insuperable burdens, have, it must be confessed, afforded some important encouragements, both as to honor and emolument. They have, on the whole, made it better for people to be slaves, than lazaroni ;^s for, though they are almost pressed to death, by monstrous exactions, extortions,

taxes, imposts, excises, customs, tolls, duties, rates, tithes, fees, rents, contributions, donations, tributes, and several other species of public demand, yet many industrious people are able, notwithstanding all this, to acquire wealth, and to attach respectability to themselves and families.

The English people excel all the rest of Europe in industry. There are no bounds set to enterprise; and the farmers, tradesmen, and especially the merchants, avail themselves, to an amazing extent, of their advantages. This has long been their character; and it has long been their salvation. Give a people knowledge, industry, and virtue, and they will flourish. Nothing can depress them. A national debt, as heavy as mount Olympus, cannot sink them; a revolution cannot crush them; a tyrant cannot long hold them prostrate, any more than the strength of one can resist the strength of millions.

TERRITORY.

Most nations of every age have been ambitious of extensive territories. Hence originates the desire of conquest, by far the most fruitful source of war. The charge, that monarchies are addicted, more than other governments, to war and conquest, is by no means just. None of the ancient nations were more warlike, or more greedy of conquest, than the three great republics of antiquity; Athens, Carthage and Rome. They seemed never satisfied, while any nation remained independent of them. The situation of Europe is best calculated for small kingdoms and states. Its several parts are remarkably separated by large rivers, mountains, straits and seas, which serve to impede the progress of armies, and check the rapidity of conquest. If modern republics have been less warlike than ancient, it is because they have seen less prospect of being able to cope with their neighbors.

No nation of very extensive territories ever long maintained its freedom. Rome cannot be brought as an exception to this remark, since it must be remembered, on the one hand, that the conquered provinces of that republic were governed with the most despotic sway, and on the other, that Rome, in fact, lost her liberties immediately upon the fall of Carthage. It will hence follow, that republicanism is better adapted to small, than to large territories. It is hoped, that the United States may form one

lasting exception. We give so much credit to the doctrine, however, that we strongly question the policy of enlarging our territories.

The Russian empire is the largest, that ever existed. It includes a complete northern section of Europe and Asia, and, according to some late calculations, comprehends one seventh part of the habitable earth. This immense territory is governed by a most absolute, despotic sovereign. The Russians were little known, till the reign of Peter I. called the Great. He extended his arms and conquests over the barbarous tribes, which thinly inhabited the vast countries from the gulf of Finland to the sea of Kamschatka, and from the Caspian to the White sea. The rivers, forests, and extensive plains he passed, presented greater difficulties, than the defenceless people he conquered.

The long, active and glorious reign of the great Catharine was, in a good measure, devoted to the improvement of this mighty empire ; and she did much. She instructed and civilized her people ; she organized a powerful and combining system of government, founded, for the most part, on a humane and rational policy.

But how vastly distant from civility, humanity and happiness, are the numerous millions of that empire ! It is a country too large to be governed by any single mortal ; and it will, probably, one day, fall in pieces by its own weight, under some feeble reign. Indeed the rebellion of Pugatshef, in the reign of Catherine, came near to rending it in pieces.

The history of the reign of Catherine II. opens one of the most important scenes, found in the annals of nations. Few reigns were ever more prosperous ; and few monarchs ever governed with more consummate skill. She was loved and feared by her subjects ; she held an extensive influence in the politics of Europe, both in war and peace ; and she was surrounded by a group of great and very extraordinary characters. Such were the Orloffs, Potempkin and several others.

Were it made a question, what extent of territory is most conducive to national happiness and security, we should be at a loss how to answer it. Little instruction could be drawn from experience. The histories of nations afford no certain ground for conclusion. Empires and states of all sizes, from that of St. Marino in Italy, which comprehended the inhabitants of but one small village on a hill, to that of the

empire of Russia, or of Ghenghis Khan, seem at all times, to have owed their safety and happiness to far other circumstances, than their size. An independent state sometimes owes its safety to its poverty; sometimes, to the virtue of its neighbors; but oftener, to the weakness; sometimes, to its own power and prosperity; but oftener far to its virtue and industry. If size were of any account in the happiness or duration of a state, certainly Poland would have been happy, and would not have been torn in pieces by her rapacious neighbors. Spain would be very powerful and happy, if power and happiness were the offspring of territories both rich and extensive. The same may be said of Turkey, Germany and many others.

Among the largest empires may be reckoned those of Sesostris, Nebuchadnezzar, Cyrus, Alexander, Cesar, Ghenghis Khan, Tamerlane, Charles V. and Peter the Great; among the smallest, which have made any figure, those of Tyre, Judea, Sparta, Palmyra, Venice and Britain. But from a careful attention to the history of these nations, it will be difficult to determine, which have been the most happy or secure. Probably, however, Venice and Great Britain, if we consider merely the condition of individuals, have been surpassed by few. Nations consist of individuals; and if the people of any nation are happy and prosperous, it is of little consequence to them, what the extent of their empire is. A nation, considered as a body, state, or empire, is not a creature, which actually exists, and that feels pleasure and pain. It exists no where, but in idea; nor even in that, if, as philosophers now mostly allow, there be no such thing as a general idea. A nation, in fact, is an aggregate of individuals, united under certain laws and regulations, for the purpose of mutual benefit. The great and only end of all national objects and measures, is properly the good of the individual: and apart from this, the terms, *national glory, honor, character, interest, &c.* are high sounding words without meaning.

If a nation, in its collective capacity, formed one great giant, as much larger than an individual, as the nation is; and this giant had organs, understanding, affections, and passions, equal to his dimensions; then might we talk of national glory, as a thing valuable, and of importance to individual welfare. But certainly, if national glory is but the honor and respect which nations pay to each other; and not to be purchased but by the palpable misery of a

large proportion of its constituent parts—such glory is rather a curse than a blessing to mankind.*

CONQUEST.

If we except those of France, since the revolution, there have been few conquests in Europe, for the last five hundred years. The success of the French under Bonaparte, as yet, hardly deserved the name of conquests. Their permanence, in some measure, depends on the life and fortunes of a single man. If the present emperor should, by any means, fail, or be removed, they would generally revert to their former state. A slight view of the geography of Europe, will show, that it is favorable to the existence of small states; and modern policy has erected a strong barrier against the ambition of heroes and conquerors. Negotiations, treaties and defensive alliances have been carried to such a degree of perfection and to such an extent of refinement, that Europe has borne some resemblance to a society of individuals, in which the strength of the whole is exerted for the protection of individuals. How happy for man, were this system carried still farther—that nations would see it for their interest, not only to abolish conquest, but war—that they would be willing to settle their differences in a grand court of justice, like the Amphictyonic council.

The moderns, however, have shown as good an appetite for conquest, as the ancients; but have had the precaution, in their own defence, to give origin and effect to a scheme of policy, which renders it far more difficult. Italy has been several times nearly conquered, within five hundred years; but soon recovered. France was nearly conquered by Henry V.; and Germany, by Gustavus Adolphus. Even Russia itself might have been overcome by Charles XII. if he had not been a mad-man. So, Sweden and Poland were nearly subdued by Margaret, the Semiramis of the North. Indeed, there is scarcely a nation in Europe, that has not been in danger of subjugation, but has escaped; and,

* If a nation is respected, may it not prove beneficial to individuals of that nation? If for example, the American flag is highly respected, may it not be the means of saving many an American vessel from insult, from search, from detention, from condemnation? It is very manifest, however, that such respect ought not to be purchased by the misery of numerous individuals.—*Ed.*

except Poland, no one of any considerable note has been conquered in Europe for the last 300 years. The conquest of the empire of Constantinople, by Mahomet the Great, is the last of any considerable importance, till the tornado of French *republicanism* arose. Where or when that will settle, is known only to Infinite Wisdom.

Conquests generally, though not always, ruin the conquered. If they are small, they cost the conquerors more than they are worth; if large, they often ruin them. Thus, as we have said before, the conquests of Nineveh conduced to ruin the Medes; that of Babylon, the Persians. The conquest of Persia corrupted the Greeks, as did that of Carthage the Romans. Should the French, under Bonaparte, subdue all Europe; France, which now forms a complete empire, would then be only a part of one; the seat of government might be removed, and she would become but a satellite; Bonaparte's successors might quarrel, and divide his dominions, as did those of Alexander; and France might be liable to change masters, and be fleeced from time to time by various competitors for empire. In her present boundaries, France bids much fairer for independence, happiness and duration, than if she were to conquer Europe.

England forms an exception to our rule. She rose more powerful, after being conquered by the Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans. Whether the effect will be similar, should she fall under France, we shall not pretend to say. There has been one eminent instance in Asia, in which both conquerors and conquered were equally benefitted. In 1644, the Tartars subdued China; and the descendants of Tamerlane ascended the throne of that ancient and mighty monarchy. The ferocious Tartars gradually declined or were lost in the immense population of China, and, in effect became the conquered people, by adopting the customs, and conforming to the manners, of the Chinese. By this great conquest, the Chinese, grown effeminate, were strengthened, and rendered warlike; the Tartars were civilized and reduced to a settled form of society; perhaps both were equally benefitted, since, together, they form the greatest and most powerful monarchy in the world.*

* It is by no means certain, that the Chinese monarchy is the most powerful in the world.—*Ed.*

There are several circumstances in the present state of Europe, which are awfully portentous. Several of the primary powers have greatly declined in the course of the past century, particularly Spain, Germany and Turkey, which in the reign of Charles V. held a commanding eminence. Indeed with regard to Turkey, some great change seems to be impending. It is indeed mortifying to see the finest parts of Europe, the ancient nursery of the arts and sciences, from age to age, in the possession of a gloomy, savage race, insensible to the beauties, and incapable of appreciating the advantage of their situation.

They hold not only the great city of Constantinople, which has descended through the dark ages unimpaired, but, in general, all the remains of fine architecture in Greece and Asia Minor. Over all those classic grounds, held in such high veneration by the literary world, and from which, those who would wish to travel in quest of knowledge, are in a great measure debarred, the Turkish standard is still waving.

FRENCH REVOLUTION.

The French revolution threatens more serious consequences to Europe, than any other, since the fall of ancient Rome. It has utterly defeated every calculation and prediction, excepting one. It was early foreseen and foretold, that it would injure, or rather would not help, the cause of freedom.* The torrents of innocent blood, shed in that horrid scene, could never fertilize the soil of liberty and justice. Those sacred names were used as a watch-word, to commence an onset of tragic horror, at the sight of which, Domitian or Commodus would have relented. They have injured the cause of freedom; and they threaten to exterminate every principle of civil liberty. Where are all the republics of Europe? Where is Venice, who shielded Christendom from the Turks?—who enriched Europe with her commerce? She survived the league of Cambray, but to experience a severer fate; she escaped the rock, and is lost in the whirlpool. She is subjugated, enslaved, ruined, and is no more known among independent nations.

* Even this prediction may fail. The French Revolution, however dreadful in its nature, may yet, in its consequences, prove subservient to the cause of freedom.—*Ed.*

Where is the once powerful and flourishing republic of Holland? Where the immense treasures of her bank, perhaps the richest in the world? Where her powerful fleets, by which she was able to dispute the empire of the sea with Great Britain?—Where her universal commerce?—her public credit?—her importance, prosperity, and glory? It avails her nothing, that she could once resist the arms of Philip II. and Lewis XIV.—that she has, by unparalleled industry, turned the most unpromising spot in Europe into a garden. Her sun is set; her glory forever faded; and she is humbled in the dust.

Switzerland, situated among the rocks and declivities of the Alps, a prize utterly unworthy of a great conqueror, is swallowed in the same gulf. The story of the brave and virtuous William Tell, must no longer be remembered. The days of liberty, independence, honor and virtue are past; and the Swiss cantons must, without complaint or remonstrance, submit to the mandates of a foreign master, or perish by fire and sword.

The revolution in France has given the severest blow to the cause of civil liberty, that it ever received since the foundation of the world. By one tremendous shock, it has annihilated most of the lesser powers of Europe; and those, which remain, stand on doubtful ground. Trace over the map of Europe, and see what it presents. Turkey is in her dotage. But were it otherwise, she is the hereditary foe of all Christian powers—by her condition perfectly unable, and equally unwilling by her principles, to benefit her Christian neighbors. The Russians, under Count Ramanzow, severely shook her foundations; and should the Gallic conqueror, point the thunder of his invading columns at her head, her triple crown would form but a feeble defence; she must fall.

Poland has conquered herself. She managed her affairs so feebly, that her more powerful neighbors judged it incumbent on them to help her out of her difficulties, and, by their interference, to afford her that quiet, which she could not hope from her own energy and wisdom. They stepped in and performed an act, which Solomon himself, if alive, must confess to be a new thing under the sun. They dismembered, if we look merely at natural advantages, one of the most powerful kingdoms in the world, and partitioned her off, with nearly as little disturbance, as they would an uninhabited, unappropriated forest or island.

Italy is conquered and provinciated. Germany in fact, is dismembered; or, if that is saying too much, she is a huge, disjointed, unwieldy body, incapable of vigorous defence. She can place no confidence in her best armies. Her government is without authority; her officers are traitors; and her soldiers, cowards. A hundred thousand of them will stand still in their places, and suffer themselves to be cut down. The millions of Germany, though naturally brave and warlike, will flee before the standard of Bonaparte, as grasshoppers, in a mown meadow, before the strides of a giant. It is time, that Germany were conquered. When the army of any nation or state can conduct like the army of Mack, that nation or state is unworthy of independence. It is fit for nothing but to be enslaved—to be made the scullions, of servants in the kitchens of their conquerors. One vigorous campaign would be sufficient to enrol Germany with Holland and Italy.

Sweden and Denmark, though so loudly warned by the fate of Poland, their neighbor and ally, yet follow her example, and are far advanced in her path. The motto of their government should be *pride* and *poverty*, and that of their people, *ignorance* and *misery*. They can scarcely maintain their independence, though let entirely alone. They cannot resist the arms, nor have they much to allure the avarice of a conqueror; which last consideration will probably be their shield.

Russia from her local situation, cannot interfere effectually in the South of Europe. Her strength though great, is like the inertness of nature. She has vast power of resistance; but is little disposed for a distant attack.

Prussia has no longer the great Frederic at her head. Her short-sighted policy and feeble counsels will soon restore her to her former insignificance; nor will she be thought worthy to hold the stirrup of the modern Cesar. In the present eventful struggle, which threatens the liberties of Europe, the conduct of the Prussian cabinet is matter of admiration to a distant, impartial spectator. Does Prussia possess and feel that reciprocity of condition, which will enable her to share, with France, the empire of Europe? That surely is the language of her conduct. She might have given weight to a coalition; but, when standing alone, a single campaign will make her an inconsiderable province of France.

Spain and Portugal are independent only in idea, and on paper. Their sovereignty is substantially vested in France. For a century past, they have been but the effigies of kingdoms, they have a name to live, and are dead. In the last stages of a lingering but irrecoverable decline, they exhibit one among many other proofs, that a nation may perish by far other means, than those of war and conquest.

The western shores of Europe, from the mouth of the Elbe to the strait of Gibraltar, are all under the power of France. From that strait, her power extends to the south point of Italy, from thence to the head of the gulf of Venice, and from thence to the Rhine and Elbe; comprehending Portugal, Spain, Italy, Switzerland, France, part of Germany, the Netherlands, and the states of Holland. All these powers, if not provinciated, are in a state of degradation, waiting, in trembling suspense, the uplifted blow, which shall subjugate them forever.*

The revolutionary parties in France, in quick succession, have rushed on, impetuous as a whirlwind, from monarchy to anarchy; from anarchy to democracy; from democracy to oligarchy; and from thence to despotism; which, of all forms of government, is probably the only one, under which they can live. They have already made more than one complete revolution. In the irresistible and mighty whirl of their affairs, they have brought to light a soldier of fortune, who unites the rapid genius and grand views of Alexander to the ambition and good fortune of Julius Cesar. He has, even though not a Frenchman by nation, been able to curb, restrain, and direct the fury and pride of thirty millions of people, and to fix a double bridle in the jaws of mighty France. In the midst of flames, darts and daggers, he has founded and ascended an imperial throne, while thunders were bursting round his head, and volcanoes beneath his feet. He now reigns triumphant over conspiracies at home and coalitions abroad.

Like the great heroes of antiquity, he has infused his own invincible spirit into his armies, which seem almost to rise out of the earth at the *stamp of his foot*. Let not Frenchmen complain of Bonaparte. He has done better for them, than they could do for themselves, and has given them as good a government, as they are capable of receiving.

* A short forever, truly!—Ed.

There is but one power in Europe, which can oppose any barrier to the crowning of his ambition. That is found in Great Britain. The British have been growing powerful by sea, for several ages. Their power, on the ocean, has at length become greater, than that of any other nation. They are masters of the whole world of waters; and, in a regular course of events, they must first be conquered by sea, before they can be by land. At present, the fleets of England are superior to all the fleets of Europe besides. But great revolutions despise regularity, and delight in surprising mankind with unforeseen events; and, in the revolution we have been considering, events have taken place, which evince the weakness of calculation or conjecture, and warn us to be prepared for great and sudden changes.

The eyes of Europe, nay, of all nations, are now turned toward France and England. If we regard the passions, the motives, the interests and views of the parties, we cannot say less, than that the struggle, which has already been long and fierce, is extreme and tremendous. Its issue, which involves great consequences, is still covered among the deep designs of the Almighty.

To an eye, accustomed to view, in the affairs of nations, an overruling Providence, the French emperor cannot be considered otherwise, than as a special instrument of that Providence, the full designs of which no creature can foresee. It may be, that one end of this great revolution is to punish Christian nations for their astonishing wickedness and ingratitude, under all their privileges, which they have spurned and trampled in the dust; and of course, that the wheel will continue to roll, till those, whom God has marked out as the objects of his anger, shall be sifted out and driven away before the rough wind of his indignation.

Infinite Wisdom attaches less value and importance to states and empires, than men do. To the All-seeing Eye, an empire is but a bubble; even all the nations of men are but as the dust of the balance—a thousand years are as but one day, and one day as a thousand years. That Providence, whose wheels are high and dreadful, crushes, in a moment, the grandest of human institutions, whose foundations were deeply laid and strongly fortified, and whose superstructures have been rising and decorating for ages.

To those, who place confidence in the truth and reality of revealed religion, the present seems a moment of peril and alarm to the old national establishments of Europe, whether civil or ecclesiastical. It is their almost universal belief, that the time cannot be far distant, when the Son of God is to put down all rule, and all authority and power, and set up his own kingdom throughout the world. Before this great event, there must be changes and revolutions; and the Almighty Redeemer shall, in his own time and way, show who is the blessed and only Potentate, the King of kings and Lord of lords.

Whatever may be the advantages and improvements of Europe, in its present state, (and they are many) we there see many reasons to deplore the folly, the depravity and the madness of our species. The life of man, when compared with endless duration, or even when viewed with relation to the important ends of his existence on earth, is very short. To see nations eagerly engaged in mutual destruction, laboring incessantly to push their fellow creatures from the stage of action, is shocking beyond expression. Yet such seems to be the business of the principal powers of the most enlightened and civilized quarter of the globe. They surely are as forgetful of their duty and destiny, as they are mistaken in the pursuit of happiness. How ill prepared are they to go from the crimes and horrors of the bloody field, into the presence of their final Judge?

Is the tide of ruin and desolation never to cease? Are the dark ages returning, with redoubled horror, upon mankind? or shall light and peace break forth, like the sun from behind a cloud?

—————“ THOU only know'st—
Thou, whose broad eye the future and the past
Joins to the present, making one of three.”

[*A connected account of the French Revolution and of Bonaparte.*—Lewis XVI. ascended the throne of France in the year 1774. Wanting in decision of character, he was occasionally influenced by sinister counsels, and led into arbitrary measures. The influence of his queen was not always salutary. Nursed in a despotic court, and finding the established government in France, unfettered and unchastised, by a regard for the rights of the people, she frequently counteracted the patriotic views of Lewis, and

opposed those mild measures, to which he was naturally inclined.

Lewis found a court abandoned to the utmost extravagance and prodigality; for the support of which, the Third Estate, or commons, suffered the most cruel extortions. They alone were subjects of taxation. Besides a dissipated court, an army of 200,000 men in peace, and double that number in war; a great marine establishment, public roads, works, &c. were all supported exclusively by the common people. While the commons thus suffered in every form, all ranks were kept in terror by the Bastile and *Letters de Cachet*.*

Lewis, early in his reign, discovered a disposition to ameliorate the condition of his subjects, and to reform the abuses of government. He recalled the venerable count de Maurepas, whom the vicious policy of the late reign had banished from the court. M. Turgot, an upright and enlightened minister, was chosen, to fill the place of comptroller general, that the disordered state of the finances might be rectified. In conjunction with men of such talents, Lewis hoped for a salutary reform. In compliance with the general wish of the nation, he reformed the ancient courts, denominated *parliaments*. The economical administration of Turgot soon procured copious censures from the court and clergy. He was dismissed. In 1776, the celebrated M. Necker was appointed to the office of supreme director of the finances. His distinguished duties justified his appointment, and showed, that the king had consulted the real interest of the nation. He labored with sedulous zeal, to bring the expenditure within the compass of the receipts. His efforts were crowned with success. In an account presented to the king, after three years of war, he stated, that the established revenue exceeded, by 1,887,000 dollars, the ordinary expenses of the state; thus providing a basis for future loans. Intrigue and cabal at length effected the removal of Necker. His successors either wanted his integrity or abilities. In 1785 the finances were in so deranged a state, as to set the king and the parliament of Paris completely at variance. The famous M. de Calonne was at that time, comptroller general. Feeling, that the imposition of new taxes by royal authority, would be dangerous, he suggested to Lewis the

* Letters from the king of France, by which a person was arbitrarily imprisoned or exiled.

expediency of convening an assembly of the Notables, consisting of reputable and distinguished persons, selected by the sovereign from the privileged orders. This assembly met on the 22d of February, 1787. Calonne reported the state of the national funds; exhibited the immense extent of the public debt, and the insufficiency of the revenues for the annual expenses of the nation. He laid before the assembly, his plan of reform and taxation. The principal object of this, was to equalize the public burdens, and thus diminish the weight of oppression, which, for years, had crushed the lower classes. His method of taxation, from which none were to be exempt, was strongly opposed by the nobility, clergy and magistracy. The influence of the minister sunk before that of the privileged orders. M. de Calonne was dismissed, and fled to England. The Notables refused to share with the people in supporting the public burdens; and the assembly was dismissed without having accomplished any thing beneficial. The disputes between the king and the parliament became daily more serious. In order to dispel the darkness, which surrounded the political horizon of France, and to dissipate the clouds, which portended awful destruction, the king resolved to convoke the States General; a legitimate assembly of the nation, consisting, like the British parliament, of the nobility, the prelates and commons, or representatives of the people. To a meeting of the States, all classes looked forward with anxious eagerness. Almost every one became a politician, capable, in his own opinion, of discussing important questions of government, of inquiring into the rights of man and the laws of society.

The three orders, at length, convened at Versailles, May 5, 1789. But their first proceedings were attended by circumstances inauspicious. Unanimity of council was prevented by the opposite views of the different orders; and the people, distracted by various rumors, imagined, that these dissensions were fomented by the intrigues of the court. An unusual scarcity of provisions, at the same time, increased the ferment; and the populace corrupted by disorganising principles, ascribed every evil, whether political or natural, to regal or aristocratical influence. While the court was embarrassed and torn by party views and feelings, the general ferment in Paris increased. The people, at length, broke out into open revolt, rushed to the hotel of Invalids, and seized on the arms there deposited. The

Parisians now being supplied with arms and ammunition, broke through every restraint. But while the Bastille remained in the power of the crown, the revolutionists could not think themselves secure. On the 14th of July, 1789, that awful fortress of despotism, whose name, for ages, had inspired terror, was invested by a mixed multitude of citizens and soldiers, and levelled with the ground. But so comparatively mild had been the government of Lewis, that in the apartments of this justly dreaded prison, so long sacred to silence and despair, were found only seven prisoners; four of whom were accused of forgery.

With a view of having the king more completely in their power, the revolutionary chiefs resolved to procure a removal of the assembly to the metropolis, where riots might easily be excited for the purpose of intimidation.

To effect this, men and women of the lowest class were instigated by the democratic faction, to go to Versailles to demand bread. A formidable body with Maillard at their head, commenced a disorderly march for that purpose. The mayor and municipality of Paris ordered La Fayette instantly to set out for Versailles, at the head of the national guards. When he arrived with his army at 10 o'clock at night, he found the Assembly in a very unpleasant situation. Their hall and galleries were crowded with Parisian fish women, and others of the mob, who, at every instant, interrupted the debates. La Fayette prevailed upon the assembly to close their sitting for the night, and planted guards in every quarter. All was quiet, till 6 in the morning, when a great number of women and desperate persons rushed forward to the palace, and attempted to force their way into it. Two of the guards were killed, and the assailants entered the palace, denouncing vengeance against the queen. She had opportunely escaped to the king's apartment. The tumult every moment became more violent, and sudden death seemed to threaten the royal family. La Fayette, now at the head of his troops, was successful in driving the mob from the palace, which they were beginning to pillage. The riot being quelled, the royal family ventured to show themselves at a balcony. A few voices exclaimed, *The King to Paris*. The shout soon became general; and Lewis after consulting his ministers, concluded to take up his residence at Paris, provided he should be accompanied by the queen and his children. The assembly voted itself inseparable from the court, and made prepara-

tions for the immediate progress of one hundred members, in company with the royal family. The heads of two victims were carried upon pikes by the advanced guard of the rabble; the Parisian militia followed; and the "royal captives (in the forcible and indignant language of Burke) were slowly moved along, amidst the horrid yells, and shrill screams, and frantic dances, and infamous contumelies, and all the unutterable abominations of the furies of hell, in the abused shape of the vilest of women." This triumph of faction over royalty, so disgusted many of the representatives, that they seceded from the assembly. The king was constrained to dismiss the body guards from the precincts of the palace. His ministers were harassed with suspicions and calumnies; and his views and intentions were studiously misrepresented.

In the progress of varied arrangements, alterations were made in the state of the church, by placing all her property at the disposal of the nation; monastic establishments were dissolved; feudal privileges and rights suppressed; and the kingdom, by the artful Abbe Sieyes was divided into 83 departments.

As the anniversary of the destruction of the Bastile approached, great preparations were made for the celebrity of a national confederation. A spacious amphitheatre was thrown up in the Champ de Mars, or plain of Mars, capable of containing 400,000 spectators. 2000 workmen were employed in this operation; and the people of Paris, fearing, lest the plan might not be completed, assisted in the labor. All ranks of persons, the nobles, clergy and even ladies, with an eagerness for novelty so peculiar to that people, united their efforts.

The 14th of July, at length, arrived. At six in the morning, the procession was arranged on the Boulevards, or walks, which was extremely splendid. The National Assembly passed through a grand triumphal arch, and the king and queen, attended by the foreign ministers, were placed in a superb box. After a solemn invocation to God, the king, amidst the deepest silence, approached the altar, and took the following oath. *I the king of the French, do swear to the nation, that I will employ the whole power delegated to me by the constitutional law of the state, to maintain the constitution, and enforce the execution of the laws.* Then the National Assembly, the deputies of the national guards, and every individual of this immense assembly, took the civic

oath. *Te Deum* was then sung. The performance was sublime beyond description. Never perhaps before was there such an orchestra, or such an audience. Their numbers baffled the eye to reckon, and their shouts in full chorus, rent the skies.

After an interval of comparative tranquillity, new disturbances arose. The count of Provence, the late Lewis XVIII. and the count d'Artois, prince de Conde, and several nobles of high rank and fortune, at the commencement of the disturbances, retired from France, and found an asylum in Germany. Lewis, weary of captivity, had resolved to adopt the same measure. On the night of the 20th of June, 1791, the king and queen with their family, made their escape from Paris. But their plans being ill concerted, and their mode of travelling calculated to excite suspicion, they were arrested at Varennes, in proceeding toward the German frontier, and reconducted to the Thuilleries. This singular and unfortunate occurrence destroyed all confidence between the nation and the king.

In 1792, Austria and Prussia manifested a disposition to interfere in behalf of the king and royal family. But instead of intimidating the revolutionary party, it drove them to greater acts of violence. In April, war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, was ratified by the French monarch. In the meantime, the combined armies of Austria and Prussia were ready to enter France; and their general, the duke of Brunswick, published a declaration, threatening the city of Paris with total destruction, if the least outrage should be offered to the king, queen, or any of the royal family.

This thundering menace, in all probability, determined, or at least, accelerated, the fate of Lewis and his family. The hostile armies were advancing toward Paris; and the people imagined, the king was confederate with their enemies. A terrible scene was the consequence. In August, an attack was made upon the palace. The nearer approach of the Prussian army occasioned new outrages. The prisons of Paris were filled with nobles, ecclesiastics, and opulent citizens, suspected of favoring the aristocratic party. The Jacobinical demagogues urged the expediency of destroying them, before the enemy should reach the capital. On the 2d and 3d of September, bands of ferocious assassins burst open the prisons, and massacred all the aristocrats, estimated at not less than five thousand. The

power of the legislative assembly was annihilated ; and from this moment, the cannon of the Parisians dictated all its decrees. The period, which ensued, has justly been styled, the "*reign of terror.*" During these transactions, General La Fayette, finding himself marked out for destruction by the Jacobinical party, resolved to avoid the scaffold, by quitting his country. He was arrested by the Austrians, and carried to the prison of Olmutz, where he underwent a series of sufferings seldom paralleled in a civilized world.

A new National Assembly, or Convention, met on the 24th of September, 1792 ; and on the opening of the session, the abolition of monarchy was decreed, and France was declared a *republic*. They then decided, that the king should be brought to trial. On the 11th of December, Lewis was ordered to the bar of the Convention, where, though he had received no previous intimation of the charges against him, he replied with clearness and precision, and with much composure and dignity. But his implacable enemies were bent on his destruction. The convention decided, that Lewis Capet had been guilty of a conspiracy against the liberty of the nation, and made an attack on the general security of the state. By a majority of only five voices, he was condemned to suffer death by the guillotine ; and on the 21st of Jan. 1793, was publicly executed.

The execution of Lewis excited general horror. All governments concurred in condemning the conduct of the French regicides. Great Britain, Holland, Spain, Portugal and the princes of Germany and Italy, united with Austria and Prussia against the French republic. While menaced from abroad by the combined forces of Europe, the sufferings of the republic at home under the tyranny of the blood thirsty Robespierre and the execrable Marat, are without a parallel in history.

The horrid butcheries, perpetrated by the committee of public safety, are shocking to the feelings of humanity. One of their earliest victims was Maria Antoinette, the wretched widow of Lewis. She had suffered a close captivity of three months in a miserable dungeon, when she was led before the revolutionary tribunal, and charged with various crimes, which were not substantiated ; but revolutionary vengeance had pre-determined her death. She heard the sentence without the least discomposure, and retired from the court in dignified silence. October 16,

preparations were made for her execution. At 11 o'clock in the morning, the queen was brought out of her prison, dressed in a white dishabille; she was conducted to the place of execution in an open cart; her hair from behind was entirely cut off; and her hands tied behind her. In this degraded situation, she passed through the streets, wholly unmoved by the brutal shouts of the people. On reaching the scaffold, she ascended with seeming haste and impatience, turned her eyes with great emotion toward the garden of the Tuilleries, the abode of her once happy days, and then submitted to her fate, with heroic intrepidity. She had not completed her thirty-eighth year; but her sufferings had given to her countenance and form, the appearance of more advanced age. The hair upon her forehead had become perfectly white. The death of the queen was followed by the destruction of the Girondine party. The profligate and intriguing duke of Orleans was brought to trial. He was executed on the 6th of November, amidst the deserved insults and reproaches of the populace. On the 17th of this month, the Christian religion was abjured by the Convention. Reason, Liberty and Equality were considered as the only deities, and of course the only objects of worship. The sabbath, that grand safeguard of the morals of man, was abolished; and a respite from labor allowed on every tenth day. During a great part of the year 1794, the system of terror reigned at Paris with increasing vigor; and the mutual distrust of the tyrants rendered it not less destructive to themselves, than to those who were subject to their authority. The members of the Convention, actuated by mutual jealousies and suspicions, directed their views toward mutual extermination, and successively fell on the same scaffolds, on which they had immolated so many innocent victims.

The government of France, although nominally republican, was now almost entirely vested in one man, the tyrant Robespierre. Never before was the reign of any despot so terrible. Under his sanguinary administration, the prisons of Paris, at one time, contained more than seven thousand persons; and a day seldom passed without sixty or eighty executions. Among the many victims, that were sacrificed to his tyranny, was the beautiful and accomplished princess Elizabeth, sister to the unfortunate Lewis. She was condemned on the most frivolous charges; her royal birth being her only crime.

But the reign of Robespierre was now soon to terminate. Every member of the Convention began to tremble for his own safety. Those who were most sensible of their danger, resolved to prevent their own destruction, by the death of the tyrant. Having artfully prepared the public mind, and taken the most judicious measures for diminishing the influence of the demagogue over the Parisian populace, they impeached Robespierre and his accomplices in barbarity, of a conspiracy against the Convention. Their arrest was decreed. Robespierre now discovered, that his reliance on the mob was fallacious. He was himself deserted by the people; and convinced, that his tyrannical career was at a close, shot himself in the mouth with his pistol. The ball failed of its intended effect, but carried away part of his jaw. He was seized, together with his friends (if the name of friend can be applied to demons) and dragged before the revolutionary tribunal. And by that tribunal, which had so often been the instrument of his cruelty, Robespierre was sentenced to death, together with 20 others. On the 28th of July, 1794, they were executed amidst the loud bursts of public execration. Thus fell a monster, who in cruelty, surpassed all other tyrants both of ancient and modern times; and whose death put an end to what is so emphatically denominated the "*reign of terror.*"

Notwithstanding the internal scenes of horror, the exertions of the republic during this period, were prodigious, and almost incredible. France displayed a political and military picture, to which the history of the world affords no parallel. Infidels directed her councils, and desperadoes conducted her armies. Her generals placed between the scaffolds of Paris and the cannon of their enemies, having no alternative between death and victory, immortalized their names by their bold enterprises and splendid successes.

The campaign of 1794 closed with the most signal victories on the part of the republic; and that of the succeeding year effected an important change in the political aspect of Europe. Its commencement was marked by the conquest of Holland, which was begun and completed in the space of ten days. General Pichegru on the 10th of January, passed over the Waal with his army, and on the 20th, entered Amsterdam, and offered to the inhabitants, the boon of Gallic freedom. The prince and princess of Orange fled to England. In Spain, the French armies were

equally successful. The grand coalition sustained a great loss in the defection of two of its members, the kings of Prussia and of Spain, who in the course of the year, concluded treaties of peace with France.

In 1796, the celebrated Napoleon Bonaparte was appointed to the command of the army in Italy. His military talents, hitherto but little known, now burst upon the world with uncommon splendor.

In 1796 and 7 the French armies, conducted by Bonaparte, completed the conquest of all the Austrian dominions in Italy, established the Cisalpine republic, and compelled all the other Italian states to submit to such terms of peace, as the victors thought fit to impose. After these triumphs on the southern side of the Alps, the victorious Napoleon penetrated the mountainous region of the Tyrol, and advanced so near to Vienna, that the imperial capital was filled with consternation, and daily expected the approach of the enemy. In this critical situation of his affairs, the emperor of Germany, Francis II. opened a negotiation with the French general; and a treaty of peace followed.

In the meantime, great dissensions prevailed at Paris, between the legislative Councils and the Directory. Even the directors were divided among themselves, and resorted to the most sanguinary measures.

Bonaparte, in 1798, commenced his Egyptian expedition, the real object of which is not known. On the 20th of May, he sailed from Toulon, with an army of 40,000 men, most of them veterans, who had served in the Italian campaign. This mighty armament, on the third of June, presented itself before the island of Malta, and without resistance, took possession of those strong and almost impregnable works, which, for ages, had been considered as a bulwark of Christendom, and had withstood the most formidable efforts of the Turks, when in the meridian of their power. After leaving a garrison of four thousand men in Malta, the French armament directed its course for Alexandria. General Bonaparte landed his army on the Egyptian waste, and on the eighth of July, took Alexandria by assault, with a terrible slaughter of the Arabs and Mamelukes. He then proceeded to Rosetta, and after taking possession of that place, advanced along the banks of the Nile, toward Cairo. On the 20th, was fought the famous battle of the Pyramids, which determined the fate of Egypt.

But while victory crowned his every effort, Bonaparte was alarmed with the intelligence of the destruction of almost the whole of his fleet by the British, which he had moored in the bay of Aboukir.

This victory was achieved by Admiral Nelson, August 1, 1798, frequently termed the *battle of the Nile*. The destruction of the French fleet by Nelson, gave a new turn to the war. A fresh coalition was formed against France. This unprincipled attack of France on Egypt, induced the Ottoman Porte to declare war against her. Austria, aided and encouraged by Russia, recommenced hostilities against the republic. Germany was struggling for liberty. But Italy was the grand theatre of action. France, in the mean time, agitated with civil dissensions, which threatened the most disagreeable results, felt the necessity of establishing a new and better order of things. For this purpose, a plan was concerted by Abbe Sieyes, and a few others, and communicated to Bonaparte. He immediately appointed general Kleber to the command of his shattered army, and clandestinely embarked for France. Attended by his usual good fortune, he escaped all the English ships cruising in the Mediterranean, and arrived in Paris just in time to take advantage of the distracted state of the government. Urged on by ambition, he severed with his sword, the Gordian knot, and by the aid of the military, overturned the directoral government. A new constitution was formed Nov. 9, 1799. The executive power was vested in three consuls, Bonaparte and two others; but its exercise was almost wholly confined to Bonaparte, who was distinguished by the title of *First Consul*, as a mark of pre-eminence. On May, 1800, the first consul put himself at the head of his army, to regain his lost possessions. He crossed the mountain of St. Bernard, one of the Alps, and entered Milan, to the great surprise of his enemies, and re-established the Cisalpine republic. The Austrians were defeated in the memorable battle of Marengo, which was followed by an armistice; and a definitive treaty of peace between Austria and France was signed on the 9th of February, 1801. Portugal also made peace with France; and her example was followed by the king of Naples. The whole of Egypt was recovered from the French, by the English under the command of Sir Ralph Abercrombie and his successor, general Hutchinson. This event, together with the naval victories of Great Britain, led to negotiation for peace

between the two powers. By the definitive treaty of Amiens, which was signed on the 25th of March, 1802, Great Britain ceded all the possessions and colonies, she had acquired during the war, excepting the Spanish island of Trinidad, and the Dutch possessions in Ceylon. Thus ended the revolutionary war, the most important contest that Europe had ever witnessed, since the establishment of her existing governments.

The possessions of the French republic, at this time, were immense.

During the short season of general tranquillity, the first consul of France displayed in his political schemes, all the activity, that had characterized his military genius. The treaty of Amiens had inspired all Europe with the hope of enjoying a happy tranquillity during a long period of time. But the prospect was illusory. The restrictions imposed on British commerce, by the first consul of France, too plainly indicated, that peace would be of short continuance.

The spring of the year 1803, stands distinguished in history, by the renewal of hostilities between France and Great Britain; in which all the powers of Europe became involved, and which ended in the extermination of the revolutionary hydra.

The invasion of England was avowedly the grand object of the first consul. The most formidable preparations were made for that purpose, in the ports of the French republic, and also of the Batavian or Dutch republic. The British government adopted the most judicious measures for repelling the threatened attack. In the beginning of the year 1804, the preparations for invasion on one side, and for resistance on the other, were completed. France and Great Britain presented to each other a formidable front; but no military or naval transaction of consequence took place.

Scenes of great importance, however, opened in France. A conspiracy was formed against the first consul; but was quickly crushed. A revolution was likewise effected in the government. Bonaparte, by a decree of the tribunate, was constituted emperor of the French, May 18, 1804; and the imperial dignity was declared hereditary in his family. In order to equal, or rather surpass, the glory of Charlemagne, the pope was brought from Rome, to perform the ceremony of his coronation. On the 2d of December, 1804, he was anointed and crowned in the Cathedral of Notre

Dame, by Pius VII. Josephine his wife, was crowned at the same time, and proclaimed empress. Thus fell republicanism in France, after hundreds of thousands of Frenchmen had fought and bled for its establishment.

Until this time, the efforts of the Belligerent powers had been displayed only in tremendous preparations; but the year 1805 exhibited a scene of activity, to which no parallel is found in the annals of Europe.

The rapacity of the French emperor determined the monarchs of Russia, Prussia and Austria to unite with England, and renewedly resist his encroachments.

As soon as it was discovered, that the combined French and Spanish fleets had sailed from Toulon, the British fleet, commanded by Nelson, was despatched in pursuit of them. On the 21st of October, the combined fleet was discovered at the distance of four or five leagues from Cape Trafalgar. It consisted of eighteen French and fifteen Spanish ships of the line, seven frigates and eight corvettes. To oppose this great force, Lord Nelson had only twenty-seven sail of the line; a disparity which would have appalled any one but the hero of the Nile. When the ships were advancing, he gave as a signal, these memorable words; "England expects, that every man will do his duty;" an appeal which was received with loud acclamations. He then said to a friend, "I thank God for this great opportunity of doing my duty." Boldly pressing forward, the admiral was saluted by a furious discharge from the *Bucentaur*, the particular ship of the French commander. The thunders of the Nile were renewed; the battle raged with horrible carnage. The British were victorious. This memorable defeat nearly annihilated the naval power of France and Spain. It also terminated the career of the British hero, who fell in the moment of victory.

Although France was unfortunate in her naval enterprises, her successes on the continent were truly astonishing. The celerity with which Bonaparte executed the boldest plans, confounded his enemies, and ensured him success.

Near Austerlitz, the grand contest was decided. Bonaparte at the head of the French fought against the Russians and Austrians led on by their respective emperors.

The 2d of December 1805, was the eventful day, which laid the continent of Europe, at the feet of the French emperor. At dawn of day, Bonaparte was surrounded by his generals, giving them directions. To his army, he

remarked, "Soldiers we must finish this campaign by a clap of thunder, that will confound the pride of our enemies." To one regiment he said, "I hope the Normans will distinguish themselves to-day." To another, "Recollect, that it is many years, since I surnamed you, *the Terrible*." Rapturous shouts of *Long live the emperor*, burst from every part of the army. At sunrise, orders were given for the attack; and at one in the afternoon, the victory was decided in his favor. The French took a hundred and fifty pieces of cannon and forty-five standards. The events of this campaign produced important changes in the political system of the continent. Some of the most important of these can only be mentioned in chronological order.

The French emperor had no sooner concluded the treaty of peace with Austria, than he proclaimed the Bourbon dynasty at Naples at an end, and conferred the crown on his brother Joseph, Dec. 27. In June, 1806, Napoleon changed the Batavian or Dutch republic, into a monarchy, and gave its crown to his brother Lewis; who soon fell into disgrace with his imperial brother, for attempting to mitigate the rigor of French decrees. This revolution in Holland was followed by the dissolution of the Germanic constitution, and the formation of "The Confederation of the Rhine," of which Bonaparte was declared the protector. In Oct. 1806, Prussia and France commenced hostilities. The rapid conquests of Bonaparte in Prussia, alarmed Alexander, and excited him to the most vigorous efforts for the protection of his dominions. A battle was fought at Pultusk, on the 26th of December, between Alexander and Bonaparte, another at Eylau on the 7th of February, 1807, and the battle at Friedland, on the 14th of June of the same year. In the two former, each party claimed the superiority. In the latter the French were decidedly victorious. This was followed by an interview between the emperors of France and Russia, and the king of Prussia; and on the 7th of July, treaties of peace were concluded between the three belligerents. Jerome Bonaparte was constituted king of Westphalia, and his kingdom was enlarged by the cession of all the Prussian territories to the west of the Elbe.

The French emperor, having overcome all opposition in the North, found himself at leisure to pursue his schemes of aggrandizement in those countries. In February, 1808, Napoleon seized on the whole of Italy, except Naples, of

which his brother Joseph was king. Tuscany, Parma and Placentia were incorporated with the French empire. Rome, with the whole of the Papal territory, was annexed to the Italian kingdom.

Such was the preponderating power of France, that in the beginning of the year 1808, all the ports of Europe, except those of Sicily and Sweden, were closed against the trade of Great Britain.

In March, 1808, owing to French intrigue, great popular tumults took place in Spain. On the 19th of this month, Charles IV. abdicated the throne in favour of his son Ferdinand VII. Soon after, Charles and Ferdinand, with the whole of the royal family, were allured to Bayonne, for a friendly interview with the emperor of the French. Napoleon, having both the kings in his power, obliged them to sign a formal abdication; and on the 6th of June, conferred the crown of Spain on his brother Joseph, who resigned the kingdom of Naples to Prince Joachim Murat, grand duke of Berge.

This unprincipled conduct of the French emperor proved the signal for a general insurrection in Spain. The patriotic flame first burst out in the province of Asturia, and was rapidly communicated to every part of the kingdom. The assistance of England was solicited by the patriots, and readily granted. This struggle for life and freedom continued for several years, with various success; and at length, terminated in the emancipation of Spain from French tyranny, and the restoration of the throne of the Bourbons.

In 1809, Austria resolved to make a magnanimous, but hazardous attempt, to regain her former power, which had been greatly abridged by the treaty of Presburg. Hostilities commenced on the 9th of April. So rapid was the progress of the French, that after three severe actions at Abensberg, Eckmuhl and Ratisbon, Vienna was compelled to capitulate on the 12th of May. And thus, a third time, acknowledged Bonaparte as conqueror. The battle of Wagram, on the 6th of June, in which the French were victorious, terminated the war. A treaty of peace soon followed, highly advantageous to the great usurper of the rights of man.

Napoleon, in order to consolidate his power, demanded in marriage the archduchess Maria Louisa, daughter of Francis II. The nuptials were solemnized at Paris, with great splendor, April 2, 1810.

In 1812, the Russian emperor, indignant at the ruin of the trade of his empire, disdained to submit any longer to the restrictions of the continental system, established by the French emperor. This gave rise to a war between France and Russia, attended with a destruction of the human species, unparalleled in modern times. In June, Bonaparte entered the Russian territories with an army of about 300,000 men, in the highest state of equipment and discipline. After being decidedly victorious in several battles, and claiming the victory at the sanguinary battle of Borodino, he advanced to Moscow, and, on the 15th of September, entered that capital, and sat down on the throne of the czars. Previous orders having been given for the destruction of the city by fire, the invader found himself in the midst of smoking ruins. Napoleon fixed his head quarters in the Kremlin, and offered peace to the Russian monarch. Kutusoff replied, that neither the emperor, nor the nation, would condescend to treat, while a single foreign soldier remained within the wide extent of the Russian dominions; and expressed his surprise at the proposal, as the campaign on his part, was merely on the point of opening. The French emperor, perceiving the impossibility of procuring supplies, began his retreat on the 18th October, exposed to the incessant attacks of the Russian armies, collected from every quarter. In these bloody encounters, the French were constantly defeated; and the winter having set in prematurely, and with a severity unusual even in that rigorous climate, this immense invading army was almost annihilated. The French emperor, with his principal generals, escaped with great difficulty, and reached Paris about the end of December. The victorious Russians, with Alexander at their head, continued without opposition, their progress towards Germany, issuing proclamations, inviting the enslaved nations to throw off the oppressive yoke of France.

Prussia was the first to secede from her tyranny; and her example was followed by several German states. Austria and the crown prince of Sweden, Bernadotte, formerly one of Napoleon's generals, joined in the confederacy.

Napoleon on arriving at Paris, commenced a strenuous effort to resist the approach of the allies. An army of 350,000 men was readily furnished, and with these fresh recruits, he hastened to join the shattered remnants of his

Russian invaders. Many battles were fought in the course of the summer, with doubtful success, previous to the great battle of Leipsic, which decided the fate of Napoleon, of France and of Europe. This stupendous military scene opened on the 16th of October, 1813. Here were exhibited the banners of contending nations, from the Atlantic to the Caspian. And here were the mighty energies of nearly 500,000 combatants displayed in tremendous effort. The contest was desperate; and the carnage dreadful. Victory decided in favor of the allies; and the French retired with the loss of 40,000 men killed, wounded and prisoners; and between 60 and 70 pieces of cannon. The next morning, Leipsic was carried by assault. Bonaparte was at the palace with the king of Saxony, when the cannonade commenced. He retired with a small train, and rode with speed to the Elster, while disorder and alarm pervaded the city. The streets were rendered almost impassable by mingled artillery and wagons; the troops of the deserter pushed forward with eagerness, and when the allies rushed in, the confusion and terror rose to the extremity of horror. Slaughter raged in the streets. Many of the fugitives were deprived of life by that closeness of pressure, which they could not elude, and many were driven into the Pleisse, where they miserably perished. The emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia and the crown prince of Sweden, at the head of their respective troops, entered the town at opposite points, and met in the great square. They congratulated each other on the splendid successes, which had attended the arms of the coalition, and looked forward, with all the alacrity of hope, to the ruin of their malignant enemy. The whole loss of the French in these actions, in and near Leipsic, amounted to more than 60,000 men and a hundred pieces of artillery, exclusive of the desertion of the Saxon troops and those of Westphalia.

Napoleon, with the shattered remains of his army, made a precipitate retreat into France. On the 14th of January, 1814, he appeared before the conservative senate, to state his exigences, and to propose such arrangements, as would be requisite for the defence of the country. In reply to a speech from the senate, Bonaparte remarks, "All Europe was with us a year ago; all Europe is now against us. We should have every thing to dread but for the energy and power of the nation. Posterity will say, that, if great

and critical circumstances presented themselves, they were not superior to France and to me." It was decreed that 300,000 conscripts should be raised for the defence of the country. The French emperor left Paris on the 25th. Every plan was formed, that great military talents could devise, and every effort was put forth, that heroism could exert, to prevent the progress of the allied armies, and to preserve the independence of France, or rather, to preserve his own independence, as tyrant of the world.

In the mean timé, the allied sovereigns of Russia, Austria and Prussia had assembled at Frankfort, whence the memorable declaration was issued, that they would never lay down their arms, until the political state of Europe should be re-established, nor until they had secured a real peace, which should restore them their freedom, tranquillity and happiness.

All Bonaparte's efforts were abortive. The allied armies entered Paris on the 31st of March, 1814; not however, as conquerors, but as deliverers. The emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia were received by all ranks of citizens, with the most cheerful and feeling acclamations of joy. A provisional government was formed; and on the 2d of April, the senate decreed the deposition of Napoleon. The humbled tyrant, aware of the necessity of yielding to the urgency of imperious circumstances, declared his readiness to sacrifice every personal advantage, not excepting even life, to the interest of France; and, as his continuance in his exalted station was deemed the only obstacle to the re-establishment of the peace of Europe, he renounced, for himself and his heirs the thrones of France and Italy. Lewis XVIII. was invited to take possession of the throne of his ancestors. A constitution was framed for his acceptance, which happily blended the prerogatives of the sovereign with the liberties of the subjects. And after an absence of nearly 25 years, Lewis made his entry into Paris, on the third of May, 1814, amidst the plaudits and benedictions of the people. Napoleon retired to the island of Elba, (a residence of his own choice) of which the allied powers ceded to him the sovereignty, with a yearly pension of two millions of francs. The empress Maria Louisa was constituted archdutchess of Guastalla, and her infant son, Francis Napoleon, duke of Parma and Placentia. All the branches of the Bonapartean family obtained an ample provision by annual pensions.

The jarring passions of the nations were now hushed; and they seemed to be reposing under the balmy wing of peace, when, like an unexpected volcanic eruption, an event occurred, that filled all Europe with amazement and terror. The imperial prisoner of Elba burst from his confines.

At Paris, the partisans of Bonaparte had studiously intrigued for his restoration. They malignantly vilified the acts of the king, and took every opportunity of fanning the flame of discontent. Emissaries were easily found, who conveyed such intelligence to Elba as stimulated the hopes of the dethroned emperor. He no longer exhibited an air of resignation to his fate. He avoided society, and brooded with a gloomy aspect, over his secret thoughts. Taking advantage of the absence of the British supervisor, he assembled his guard and an additional troop of adventurers, and harangued them in support of those pretensions, which he had been compelled, by foreign arms, to relinquish. He accused the allies of acting from the most illiberal and selfish motives, and ridiculed the imbecility of the Bourbons. He represented himself as the only leader qualified to retrieve the glory of France, and rescue the nation from a degrading yoke. His speech was received with the most animated shouts; and the party, consisting of 1140 men, embarked at night in a brig and six transports; and eluding the vigilance of the British cruisers, landed at Frejus in Var, in the southeastern part of France, the first of March, 1815. On meeting the advanced guard of Lewis, he approached them with confidence, and exclaimed, "Soldiers, you have been told, that I fear death. If there be among you one soldier, that would kill his emperor, let him plunge his bayonet into my bosom." The effect was instantaneous; the arms of the soldiers were hurled to the ground; and the air resounded with cries of *Long live the emperor!* At Grenoble, Bonaparte was joined by Labedoyere; and the military every where hastened to his standard. Napoleon having triumphantly reached Fontainebleau, Lewis was advised to seek safety by flight. He, accordingly, left Paris, accompanied by all the members of the royal family, and arrived in safety, at Ghent. The national guards, to the number of 100,000 men, were placed at Melun, between Paris and Fontainebleau, to impede the progress of Bonaparte to the capital. They were drawn up in military array, facing the skirts of the woods of Fontainebleau, and with anxious silence waited the approach of the enemy.

At length, a small escort appeared; a carriage followed, in which, was seated a warrior, whose features were immediately recognized, and "*Long live the emperor!*" burst simultaneously from the delighted soldiery. Napoleon passed triumphantly through the whole of the royal army, and at eight o'clock, the same evening, entered Paris. Thus in twenty days, Napoleon found himself quietly seated on the throne of France, without having shed a drop of blood.

As soon as Bonaparte's arrival in France, was known at Vienna, where the congress from the allied powers, was still assembled, a manifesto was published by that august body, declaring, that "Napoleon Bonaparte, by thus breaking the convention, which established him in the isle of Elba, had placed himself without the pale of civil and social relations, and had rendered himself liable to public vengeance, as an enemy and disturber of the public tranquillity.

As the manifesto of the confederate princes seemed to require an answer, a declaration appeared in the name of Napoleon, accusing them of a violation of the treaty of Fontainebleau, not only as far as it concerned him and his family, but as it respected the rights and interests of the French. These infractions of treaty, he presumed, justified his return, and, as the French had honored him with the most friendly reception, and had gladly permitted him to reascend their throne, he could not conceive, that any just grounds existed for the interference of foreign powers. The French wished for that independence, which they had a right to expect. They wished for peace, and would faithfully observe the stipulations of the treaty of Paris; and, as no change, ominous to the repose of Europe, had occurred in their country, they demanded, from the allies, a respect for their rights, and a forbearance of injury.

Not content with the dissemination of this manifesto, he addressed a letter to each of the allied potentates, deprecating a renewal of war. He affirmed, that his resumption of authority, was the result of an irresistible power, the effects of national unanimity, displayed in a just cause; and expressed a strong desire of rendering his restoration to the throne instrumental of preserving the tranquillity of Europe. That tranquillity, he remarked, might be permanently secured, if other princes would follow his example, and, instead of rivalry in war, would contend for pre-

eminence in the great duty of promoting public welfare and private felicity. Napoleon could not conceal his mortification, when he found, that his letters had not produced a single reply. The lofty demeanour of the allied sovereigns, keenly wounded his feelings, and humbled his pride. He became unusually reserved and thoughtful; gloom sat upon his brow, and discontent rankled at his heart.

Disappointed in the hope of deluding foreign princes into an opinion of his being influenced by sentiments of moderation, Napoleon made preparation for war. As his power was not sufficiently established, to insure him the national support in a protracted war, he needed the dazzling blaze of decisive victory, to renew the charm once attached to his name and fortunes. He resolved to make a sudden irruption into Belgium, and by a rapid movement, to direct his whole force against the English and Prussians, hoping that by so vigorous a measure, he might defeat his enemies in detail; and that one splendid victory would completely restore his influence in France, and enable him to carry the conscription into full effect; and thus present a formidable front to the combined powers of Europe.

On the 14th of June, 1815, Napoleon issued an address to his army consisting of 150,000 men. He reminded the troops of the victories of Marengo, of Austerlitz, of Jena, of Friedland and Wagram; and after setting before their eyes a display of their former achievements, and of the glory, which they were now to expect, he observed, that the moment had arrived for every brave Frenchman to conquer, or to die.

On the following morning, 15th of June, the French emperor put his army in motion, and suddenly burst into Belgium. The out-posts of the Prussians were driven in with loss. The next day, the French commenced a furious assault upon the Prussians, commanded by Blucher, and upon the English commanded by Wellington. The conflict was severe and obstinate. The Prussians retreated, leaving 15,000 of their number either dead or wounded on the field of battle. But the English, with undaunted firmness, withstood the fiercest charges of the enemy. The conflict, which took place at a hamlet, called *Quatre Bras*, was desperate. The duke of Brunswick was killed, and the loss was great on both sides. Wellington, however, kept the field; and marshal Ney fell back upon Fransnes. In consequence of the defeat of the Prussians, the English

commander, instead of following up his advantages at Quatre Bras, resolved to fall back to such a position as would afford communication with the Prussian army. The English, accordingly, took a position about a mile in front of the village of Waterloo, communicating, on the left, with the Prussians at Wavre; and Napoleon established his quarters at Planchenoit, a small village a little in the rear. Thus arranged, the two armies and their commanders anxiously waited the arrival of morning, and the events, which it was to usher in. The night was excessively stormy. The furious gusts of wind, the heavy falls of rain, the vivid flashes of lightning, and the loudest thunder ever heard in that climate, concurred in forming a tempest, violent in the extreme. To the fury of this tempest, both armies, who were about equal in number, were exposed, without shelter, and destitute of the means of enjoying repose or refreshment.

At length, the morning of the memorable 18th of June, arrived, when Napoleon was to begin his last deadly struggle. The battle commenced at ten, and during nine hours a succession of the most furious attacks were made on the British, which were repelled with the most undaunted heroism. Although an almost incredible number, both of the cavalry and infantry of the French had fallen in the sanguinary conflict, this horrible carnage did not prevent Napoleon from risking a final and desperate effort. The imperial guards, which had been kept in reserve, about 15,000 in number, led on by Ney, made a charge on the British guards, tremendous beyond all description; continued for some time, with a dauntless perseverance, that seemed to bid defiance to all opposition, although their columns were almost annihilated, as fast as they advanced, by the British artillery. At length the assailants began to retire. The advance of the Prussians, who had been detained by bad roads; and the consideration of having no reserve, added confusion to their retreat. The British now resumed the offensive. The French were thrown into irretrievable disorder, and fled in the utmost confusion, leaving behind them 150 pieces of cannon. The British cavalry being completely exhausted, the pursuit was committed to the Prussians, under Blucher, who made most dreadful havoc of the fugitives.

The consternation of the vanquished commander was extreme. All his ambitious views, all his prospects of con-

tinued power, seemed to vanish into air. After a precipitate and melancholy flight, he reached Paris on the second evening after the battle, in deep dejection. Having resigned his crown to his son, he repaired to Rochefort. He continued above a week in that town, in a state of gloomy discontent, anxiously waiting the course of events. Having in vain endeavored to escape by sea, he resolved to throw himself on the generosity of the British. In a letter to the prince regent, he remarks, "I have terminated my political career; and I come, like Themistocles, to seat myself at the hearths of the British people. I place myself under the protection of their laws, which I claim of your Royal Highness, as the most powerful, the most constant, and the most generous of my enemies." On the 15th of July, 1815, he unconditionally surrendered himself into the hands of Captain Maitland, of his Majesty's ship *Bellerophon*, and was conducted to Torbay in England.

The allied sovereigns fixed his residence on the rocky, dreary island of St. Helena, where the everlasting barrier of an immense ocean prevented him, during the few remaining years of his existence, from disturbing the repose of the world.

His death occurred on the 7th of May, 1821.

Immediately after the total defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo, the combined British and Prussian armies advanced to Paris. On the third of July, the articles of capitulation were arranged and signed; and Louis XVIII. returned to the seat of his government. His inglorious reign closed in September, 1824. He was succeeded by his brother, the Count d'Artois, whose title is Charles X.]

[*Hayti*.—the island of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, is memorable for having been the seat of the first European settlement in America, and the scene of the first independent empire, founded by African slaves. It was discovered by Columbus, on the 6th of December, 1492, on his return from Cuba. It had borne the name of Hayti, among the natives, an appellation, which has been recently revived in the western part. Columbus called it *Espanola*, or *Little Spain*, and it has since acquired the name of *St. Domingo*, from the chief town, so called by Bartholomew Columbus.

The impression, made on Columbus by the beauty of the country, and the simplicity of the natives, was such, that he

determined to form a settlement here; and accordingly, left 38 Spaniards at the Bay of St. Nicholas, when he sailed for Spain in January, 1493. These were the first colonists of America. On his return, in November, 1493, he founded a second town on the Northern coast, which he called *Isabella*, the first settlement having been nearly destroyed by the natives. The licentiousness and avarice of the new settlers again provoked the Indians to attempt revenge; but these miserable beings were overpowered by European skill; and great numbers perished by famine and the sword. In 1496, Columbus returned to Spain, leaving his brother Bartholomew lieutenant governor, who soon afterwards removed the colony to a more eligible situation, on the south side of the island, where he founded the city of St. Domingo. The number of inhabitants appears, after this, to have increased rapidly. Nicholas de Ovando brought, in one armament, 2500 settlers. These and the former colonists were distributed by Columbus in different districts, and a certain number of natives were appointed, to cultivate each allotment. This unhappy race dwindled away fast under disease and a species of labor, to which they were unaccustomed. We find their numbers were so much reduced, about the year 1513, that Ovando, to supply the necessary fund of laborers, decoyed 40,000 of the inhabitants of the Bahamas into St. Domingo; and notwithstanding this accession, it is said, that towards the middle of that century, scarcely 150 Indians remained alive. The colonists, in the mean time, degenerated from the spirit and enterprise of their ancestors. Their mines were deserted, and their agriculture neglected; and, although Ovando had introduced some slips of the sugar cane from the Canary islands, yet, such was the indolence of the inhabitants, that they could not be persuaded to cultivate it. In this state of things, the island remained for upwards of a century.

About the middle of the 17th century, a French colony was established in the west end of the island. From the year 1776 to 1789, the French colony was at the height of its prosperity. Its productions were immense and valuable, and its commerce in the most flourishing state.

The French revolution opened a fountain of evil for the whites of St. Domingo. In 1791, an alarming insurrection of the negroes broke out in the French colony. In two months upwards of 2000 whites perished, and large dis-

tricts of fertile plantations were devastated. From the northern province, the rebellion spread to the west; where, however, it was soon quelled. In 1792, the National Assembly proclaimed the political equality of the free negroes and the whites, and, in the succeeding year, appointed three commissioners of extreme republican principles, who, on their arrival, decided the fate of the colony, by proclaiming the emancipation of the slaves. On the 21st of June, 1793, Macaya, a negro chief, entered Cape Francois at the head of 3000 slaves, and began an indiscriminate slaughter. In this state of things, the British government, hoping to take advantage of the confusion, sent a body of troops from Jamaica, who landed at Tiburon captured Leogane, and afterwards Port au Prince. The yellow fever, however, breaking out, reduced their numbers rapidly; and the blacks, headed by Rigaud, a mulatto, and the celebrated Toussaint L'Ouverture, who had been appointed by the French government, commander in chief, retook the principal places. The English were reinforced by successive detachments of large bodies, but were confined within the capital by the blacks, and thinned in numbers by the fever. At length, after an enormous loss of men, they finally evacuated the island in 1798. Previously to this, Spain had ceded to France the eastern part of the island; but the cession produced no advantage to the latter, in consequence of the deranged state of affairs.

At the beginning of the year 1800, the blacks found themselves powerful in numbers, and improved in skill and discipline, to a degree, that rendered them competent to contend for the possession of the whole island. On the 1st of July, in the succeeding year, the independence of Hayti was proclaimed. The French government had, by this time, recovered from its delusion, and saw the error it had committed. Under the vigorous administration of Bonaparte, then first consul, a force of 20,000, under general Le Clerc, was despatched in December, 1801. They landed at the bay of Samana. But before they entered Cape Francois, the city was laid in ashes. In February, 1802, general Le Clerc began the campaign, and fought with varied success, until the 1st of May, when a truce was concluded between the contending armies. During the continuance of this truce, as is said by English writers, Toussaint was surprised and conveyed a prisoner on board a vessel, by which he was carried to France, and there died

in the month of April, 1803. Hostilities were now resumed with greater animosity on each side. The command of the black troops devolved upon Dessalines, one of the chiefs, who prosecuted the war with vigor and success. The yellow fever aided the cause of the negroes, and swept off great numbers of the French. By the middle of October, 1803, Fort Dauphin, Port de Païse, and several other important posts, were carried by the blacks. General Le Clerc died shortly afterwards. Under his successor, Rochambeau, an armistice was concluded, during which the blacks received large reinforcements, while the French were blocked up by the English ships. At the expiration of the armistice, the French, now reduced to a handful, were driven into the Cape, where, on the 30th of November, 1803, they were forced to capitulate to the English squadron; and thus a greater part of the island was abandoned by the French, and the negroes left to enjoy their independence.

The liberated blacks now determined on discarding the name given to the island by Europeans, and reviving that of Hayti. On the 1st of January, 1804, the general and chiefs of the army entered into a solemn compact, in the name of the people of Hayti, renouncing forever all dependence on France. At the same time, they appointed Dessalines governor for life, with very extensive powers. The next step in the promotion of this military chief, was such as might have been expected. On his return, in September, from an unsuccessful expedition against the city of St. Domingo, which was still occupied by some Spaniards and French, he assumed the purple, and the title of Jacques I. emperor of Hayti. His reign was brief, and though some sagacious measures were adopted for the government and improvement of the people, yet his various acts of tyranny rendered him universally detested. He was slain by a military conspiracy in October, 1806. Christophe, his second in command, immediately assumed the administration of affairs, under the title of "Chief of the Government." Petion, however, another chief, appeared as a candidate for the sovereign power, and the struggle between him and Christophe was long and fierce. A severe battle was fought on the 1st of January, 1807, in which Petion was defeated. Christophe's progress to supreme power was similar to that of Dessalines. In 1807, he was appointed Chief Magistrate for life, with the power of

appointing his successor, and, in 1811, he changed the title to that of King, calling himself Henry I. The office was made hereditary in his family. From 1810 to 1820, the part of Hayti, formerly belonging to the French was under distinct and rival governments. In the north, was the kingdom of Christophe; and in the south a republic existed, at the head of which was Petion, who is represented to have possessed both sagacity and virtue. In 1806, he was appointed President for life, and retained the office until May, 1818, when he died, universally lamented by his fellow citizens. The character and end of Christophe were widely different from those of his republican opponent. He appears to have been an avaricious and cruel despot, and to have well deserved his fate. The military, who had been both the instruments and objects of his oppression, revolted in October, 1820, dragged him from his retreat, and destroyed him. In consequence of this event, the whole colony has been united under Boyer, the successor of Petion, in the office of President, and who is said to possess many of the virtues of his predecessor.

It is probable that Hayti is now the most inviting asylum for the liberated blacks in the United States. There they can enjoy property, freedom, respectability and all the endearments of civil, social, domestic and religious privileges.]

[*Modern Greece.*—We have seen the states of Greece, emerging from barbarism, throwing off the yoke of domestic tyranny, and with undaunted resolution, and invincible ardor, withstanding foreign enemies. We have seen them, giving examples of eloquence, of arts, of prowess, for the astonishment of future ages.

Again we have beheld, and they were elated by prosperity; they were corrupted by luxury; they were ruined by disunion; they could not stand before the power of Macedon.

The Macedonian yoke was only exchanged for the Roman; and the Roman, for that of different tribes of barbarians, or of the Eastern emperors; until, about the middle of the fifteenth century, they found a melancholy repose in the stability of the Ottoman empire. In 1453, Mahomet II. took Constantinople, and soon after, Greece. Since the period of that capture, or for the space of nearly 400 years, the Greeks have been abandoned, by the com-

mon consent of Europe, a prey to Turkish domination ; and subjected to a slavery, which in all the odious features of brutality and cruelty, of rapacity and pollution, lacks a parallel in the annals of the world. Since that time, till within a very few years, wherever they have lived, whatever character they have sustained, they have been compelled to feel, from day to day, that every Turk, whom they met, was a master, and every Greek a slave. The Sultan, and under him, the Pacha, and under him, the Bey, and under him the Aga, was avowedly the proprietor of their estates, and the disposer of their lives. Their wives, their daughters, were never secure from violence. Life always hung in doubt before them. Property could be safe, only as it was concealed. To the Greek, no house has been a sanctuary ; no temple a refuge. Wherever he has cast his eyes, he has seen the crescent frowning on the churches of the living God, the bible supplanted by the koran, and the ministers of Jesus, driven out, to make room for the imans of Mahomet. Ever since the Turks have had the country in their possession, they have exerted a wanton industry, and shown the natural hostility of ignorance to taste, by mutilating statues, demolishing temples, and defacing the elegant forms of sculpture. The spot, where stood the magnificent temple of Minerva, is now indicated only by huge masses of marble. The renowned Pireus is now distinguished only by the traces of a small theatre, and a monastery of mean architecture. The ruins of temples and theatres, intermixed with flat-roofed cottages, and marble tablets inscribed with characters, which neither the ignorant Turks, nor the modern Greeks can decipher, are melancholy memorials of a more noble and a more refined people. The shores of Attica are waste and desolate ; few villages are to be seen from Eleusis to the promontory of Sunium, and thence even to the plains of Marathon ; the eye of the inquisitive traveller discerns nothing but scattered ruins along a coast of eighty miles in extent.*

However the Athenians are depressed by their haughty tyrants, they still retain marks of their original character. They possess much of that quickness of apprehension, vivacity of temper, and urbanity of manners, which distinguished their ancestors. The native character of the people long continues, like the peculiarities of the soil.

* In 1803.

But a long state of servitude and superstition, has degraded the native powers of their minds; and the recollection or the fear of blows and indignities, so often inflicted by their conquerors, makes them stoop to the artifices of cunning and dissimulation. It will, however, be recollected, that this remark upon their character, was made several years ago, and the wisdom, the valor, the disinterested patriotism, they have since exhibited, will go far to efface such recollections.

The commerce of the Greeks is an anomaly in the history of nations. Elsewhere, commerce has flourished, either when left to itself, or when encouraged by the fostering hand of government. In Greece, it has flourished, in spite of opposition and rapacity. They have extended it with unbending resolution, and increasing activity, until it covers all the shores and harbors of the Mediterranean. According to a statement published in 1813, we find them eight years previous to the revolution, possessed of 615 merchant vessels, armed with 5,878 cannon, and manned by 17,526 seamen. Since its commencement, the number of vessels has rapidly increased, for the small island of Hydra alone now possesses upwards of 600. The beauty and swiftness of their vessels evince their skill in naval architecture; while their seamen are celebrated through the Mediterranean for the dexterity, with which they manage their ships.

Schools, which are accessible to all classes, are extensively established; and the great body of the people can read and write. The college at Haivali, founded in 1803, had 200 students, and a competent number of professors, supported by the liberality of the citizens. That at Scio, founded ten years earlier, and supported by the merchants, had immediately before its destruction, from 700 to 800 students, 20 professors, chiefly educated in Europe, an atheneum, and a library of 10,000 volumes. The course of instruction in literature and the sciences was rapidly approximating to the European standard of perfection. Besides these, public schools of a respectable character were found at Yanina, at Athos, at Athens and at Patmos. More than 500 of the finest young men of Greece regularly received a still higher education at the universities of western Europe. Several printing presses have been established and several newspapers circulated.

Though the Greeks have so long worn the yoke of slavery, they have not worn it tamely and patiently. For the last fifty years, no seeming opportunity has offered of liberating their country, but they have, at once, embraced it.

Under the reign of Bonaparte, the prospect of the emancipation of Greece from Turkish tyranny, began to brighten. Secret societies had long existed in Paris, and were even encouraged by the French government, for the purpose of exciting an insurrection among the Greeks. In the years 1810 and 1811, vast preparations were made in furtherance of this design. Arms and ammunition were sent into Albania and Epirus; the most powerful Beys and Pachas were engaged in the French interests; the Servians openly revolted; and an army under Marshal Marmont, was on the point of marching from Dalmatia, to be joined by another from Corfu, when the disastrous events of the Spanish and Russian campaigns, once more left the Greeks to their own resources.

In 1816, a society was formed for the encouragement of Grecian literature. It was connected with a similar institution at Athens; and another in Thessaly, called the "*Gymnasium of Mount Pelion.*" The treasury and general office of the institution were established at Munich. No political object was avowed by these institutions; probably, none contemplated. Still, however, they had their effect in hastening that condition of things, in which the Greeks felt competent to the establishment of their independence. Many young men, for years, had been annually sent to the universities in the western states in Europe, for their education; and after the general pacification of Europe, many military men, discharged from other employment, were ready to enter even into so unpromising a service, as that of the revolutionary Greeks.

In 1820, war commenced between the Porte and Ali, the famous Pacha of Albania. Differences existed also with Persia, and with Russia. In this state of things, at the beginning of 1821, the Greeks actuated by an unconquerable spirit of freedom, and deadly hate of tyranny, broke out into an open insurrection, which, it is confidently believed, will terminate in their final independence. It commenced in the northern provinces of the Turkish empire, under Prince Alexander Ypsilanti, who had served with distinction, in the Russian army, during the French

invasion. Through the spirited exertions of this officer, and the aid afforded by Ali Pacha, it spread through every portion of European Turkey. From those cities in which the Christians out-numbered the Mahometans, the latter thought it prudent to retire. In revenge for this, an indiscriminate slaughter of the Greeks followed in those places, in which the Mussulmen exceeded the Christian population. At length, it was determined by the Divan, to strike terror into the insurgents, if possible, and by one decisive blow, to check the further progress of insurrection. The patriarch of Constantinople was venerated by all ranks for his talents, his disposition, and superior sanctity of character. After having been compelled to utter an anathema against his countrymen in arms, he was suddenly seized by the Turkish soldiery, as he came from the performance of worship on Easter Sunday, and hanged in his pontifical robes, before the gates of his own cathedral. This almost unparalleled atrocity, however, instead of producing the intended effect, served only to rouse the indignant spirits of the Greeks, and to urge them on to acts of dreadful retribution.

The Greeks soon possessed themselves of the open country of the Morea, and drove their enemy into the fortresses. Of these, that of Tripolizza, with the city, the ancient Mantinea, fell into the hands of the Greeks.

At the commencement of 1822, the whole force of the Turkish empire was in a condition to be brought against the Greek rebellion. Many anticipated the immediate destruction of their cause. The event, however, was ordered otherwise. Where the greatest effort was made, it was met and defeated. Entering the Morea with an army, which seemed capable of bearing down all resistance, the Turks were nevertheless defeated, and driven back, and pursued beyond the isthmus, within which, from that time to the present, they have not been able to set their foot.

It was in April, 1822, that the destruction of Scio took place. That island, a sort of appanage of the Sultana mother, enjoyed many privileges peculiar to itself. In a population of 130,000 or 140,000 it had no more than 2000 or 3000 Turks; by some accounts, not nearly so many. The absence of these ruffian masters, had in some degree, allowed opportunity for the promotion of knowledge, the accumulation of wealth, and the general cultivation of society. Here was the seat of the modern Greek litera-

ture; and here were libraries, printing presses, and other establishments, which indicate some advancement in refinement and knowledge. Certain of the inhabitants of Samos, it would seem, envious of this comparative happiness of Scio, landed upon the island, in an irregular multitude, for the purpose of compelling its inhabitants to make a common cause with their countrymen against their oppressors. These, being joined by the peasantry, marched to the city, and drove the Turks into the castle. The Turkish fleet, lately reinforced from Egypt, happened to be in the neighboring seas, and learning these events, landed a force on the island of 15,000 men. There was nothing to resist such an army. These troops immediately entered the city, and began an indiscriminate massacre. The city was fired; and, in four days, the fire and the sword of the Turks, rendered the beautiful Scio a clotted mass of blood and ashes. The details are too shocking to be recited. Forty thousand women and children, saved from the general destruction, were afterwards sold in the market of Smyrna, and sent off into distant and hopeless servitude. Of the whole population, which has been mentioned, not above 900 persons were left living upon the island.

Though the Turks gained some advantages, the campaign closed with signal victories in favor of the Greeks; as did that of 1823.

Mr. Webster, in his speech before congress in favor of aiding the Greeks, has the following remarks, "They have held out for three campaigns. Constantinople and the northern provinces have sent forth thousands of troops;—they have been defeated.—Tripoli, Algiers and Egypt, have contributed their marine contingents;—they have not kept the ocean. Hordes of Tartars have crossed the Bosphorus;—they have died, where the Persians died. The powerful monarchies in the neighbourhood have denounced their cause, and admonished them to abandon it, and submit to their fate. They have answered them, that, although two hundred thousand of their countrymen have offered up their lives, there yet remain lives to offer; and that it is the determination of all to persevere, until they shall have established their liberty, or until the power of their oppressors shall have relieved them from the burthen of existence."

The following extract from a recent paper, will exhibit the flattering prospects of the Greeks, at the close of the year 1824.

“The government is established in the strong place of Napoli di Romania. Its members possess the confidence and affection of all ranks of citizens. They receive from all quarters, the most satisfactory proofs of obedience. Anarchy and confusion, too often the associates of a newly established state, have seceded from Greece, and left in their stead, union and amity. Foreign powers look upon Greece, as worthy of the advantages she has gained. The subjects of the most enlightened nations have contributed liberal assistance; and Greece seems rapidly advancing toward that state, which will enable her to shew her gratitude for their support. Her enemy is no longer regarded, as that colossal power, which could not be successfully opposed. Revolution reigns in the heart of Turkey; her subjects throw off their allegiance, or behave in a manner, which plainly indicates their sentiments. The people have lost their confidence in her ministers; deposition follows deposition, and yet discontent maintains her empire.

Providence, evidently aids the Greeks; who, in their turn, attribute to the hand of their Creator, the successes which accompany their efforts.

The campaign of next year will, in all probability, conduce still further to their consolidation, and render their independence no longer problematical.]

CHAPTER XI.

THE PRESENT STATE OF ASIA.

THE people of Asia may be considered under seven grand divisions. The Russians possess the northern; the Chinese, the eastern; the Indians, the south-eastern; the Persians, the southern; the Arabians, the south-western; the Turks, the western; and the Tartars, the central regions, of this great division of the globe. Our view of Asia, though very brief, will be two-fold. We shall first direct the eye of the reader to these grand divisions separately, with an intention to notice some of the peculiarities of each; and, secondly, we shall notice certain things, in which they all agree; and shall close with remarks applicable to the whole.

I. RUSSIA IN ASIA.

Few governments in the world are more despotic, than that of Russia; and, for the last hundred years, that government has generally been in hands, which managed its proper machinery with incredible skill and energy. From Petersburg, the royal residence, situated at the head of the gulf of Finland, this empire extends eastward the amazing distance of several thousand miles, to the eastern ocean, or sea of Kamschatka. Yet, over so considerable a portion of the globe, the imperial mandates are spread with astonishing celerity, and are obeyed without murmurs or delays.

The Russians of Asia are of a more mild and amiable character, than those of Europe. Their numerous tribes live in pleasant countries; their towns and villages being situated in extensive plains, and on the banks of noble and majestic rivers. It is said, there is scarcely a hill of any considerable size from Petersburg to Pekin; and through those vast plains, many rivers meander in various directions. Some late geographers say, there are no less than eight rivers, which run a course of two thousand miles. But the North of Asia, like that of Europe, still abounds in forests, many of which are of very great extent.

The people in those extensive countries, are yet in a barbarous state, not very many degrees in advance of the savage. They have no point of union, nor combination, but what is found in the powerful arm of government. They speak many languages, and are of many different religions; for although the Christian religion and the Greek church are established in the empire, yet most of the remote provinces are still pagans, or, indeed, have no settled notions of the Deity, nor forms of worship.

But notwithstanding many gloomy and forbidding circumstances in the condition of the Russian empire, it is probably improving faster, than any other part of Asia; or, to speak more properly, it is improving in some small degree; which can scarcely be said of any other part of that quarter of the globe. The people are becoming more agricultural; a regular commerce begins to awaken a spirit of enterprise; civility gains ground; the arts and sciences are spreading their benign influence in some very remote provinces. The great Catharine erected schools, and opened several missions in the provinces bordering on

Kamschatka, and offered adequate encouragement to emigrants disposed to settle in those countries.

The vast plains of Russia facilitate land carriage; and her numerous large rivers render easy the transportation of their various commodities from one country to another.

As early as the tenth century, the Russians make some inconsiderable appearance in the histories of Europe. The ancient capital of the empire is Moscow. There every monarch must be crowned, before he can be acknowledged sovereign of all the Russias. But the empire was in a state of the utmost barbarity, before the reign of Peter the Great. No monarch of modern times, or, perhaps, of any age or nation, ever did more for his empire, than Peter did for his. He condensed the resources of a multitude of tribes; he combined their strength in a regular plan of government; he put a stop to their incessant wars among themselves; he exterminated innumerable banditti of robbers, which infested, and fearlessly ravaged all those countries; he built cities, removed forests, caused the earth to be cultivated, settled the inhabitants of his empire in fixed places, and reclaimed them from the roving life and precarious subsistence of the Tartars. Peter did more than all this. He did not encourage merely, but he originated the arts and sciences among his people. He built a city, which, in less than a century, merited a place in the first rank of cities. To that city, he invited, from all parts of the world, the most able mechanics, and the most elegant artists, whom he encouraged with royal munificence. Not contented with *a most powerful land force*, he determined to be known on the watery element. With this view, he became a ship carpenter, and worked with his own hands in the ship yard; he studied the art of navigation, and practised it; he surveyed the shores and coasts of the Caspian sea, and drew, with his own hands, an elegant chart, which he presented to the museum at Paris; in short, he raised his empire to the first rank among the powers of the world.

There is something singular in the military character of the Russians. They are remarkable for passive valor. It is said, they will endure the greatest fatigues and sufferings with patience and calmness. They will resist, better than make an onset; though it is certain, that very few nations in the world produce better soldiers than the Russian. They have had several considerable wars with the Turks

and Persians, over both of whom, they have gained great advantages. It has been thought they would expel the Turks out of Europe, and put a period to the Ottoman empire. Count Romanzow, in the reign of the great Catharine, defeated them in a series of battles, carried terror and conquest almost to the heart of the empire, and filled the world with the fame of his victories.

II. TURKS IN ASIA.

We have already noticed the history of the Turks; but, in this place, it will be proper to regard them, a moment, as an Asiatic power; and, in so doing, we cannot avoid the reflection, how different the people in the East have fared, from those in the West of Asia. In the East, the empire of China, like a majestic luminary, has shone in glory un-eclipsed and unrivalled, for 3000 years. In the West, the Assyrians, the Persians, the Greeks, the Romans, the Goths, the Saracens, and at last, the Turks, have driven the ploughshare of destruction over the fairest provinces of the earth. To an eye or to a mind, that can contemplate 3000 years, as we can a day, the people in the West of Asia must have appeared like a nest of serpents, incessantly striving to destroy one another. But the simile utterly fails; for a nest of serpents, a den of tygers, the gloomy haunts where the deadliest monsters and dragons meet in concourse, are scenes of peace and friendship, in comparison with those wretched countries.

After the wars of the Saracens and crusaders had spent their rage in Western Asia, the Turks, like an irruption of furies from the bottomless pit, overran those countries. They established four independent kingdoms, whose capitals were Iconium, Bagdad, Aleppo and Jerusalem. These institutions perished, after a while, in the furnace of their own vices; and, from their ashes, the Ottoman Turks, about the beginning of the 13th century, arose, to complete the wretchedness of Western Asia, in which their territories were much the same, as those of the Romans.

The remnant of the ancient inhabitants of those once flourishing countries, are now miserable beyond the power of description. It will suffice to say, that they have no security of property or life. The petty tyrants, to whom the grand seignior commits the governments of those provinces, exercise their vices and villanies without

remorse and without restraint. In Thompson's and Volney's travels through Syria and Palestine, the character and condition of these wretched beings are fully described.

The condition of the Turks themselves is not a whit better, than that of the other inhabitants. They are equally subjected to a barbarous tyranny, liable to similar extortion and injustice. They have nothing they can call their own—no right—no property—no security. They are liable to be murdered at midnight, by unknown messengers, and for unknown crimes; or they may be strangled at mid-day, in the midst of their friends and families, without any consciousness of guilt—without any form of trial—even without accusation or subsequent reasons assigned. “Mystery,” says one of the above writers, “reigns round their habitations.” All is fear, concealment, melancholy and distrust; they are forced to conceal their food and raiment; they dare not make any show of opulence; for the possession of wealth would work their ruin.

The Turks, considered in all the various traits of their character, are probably the most unlovely of all nations. Their character is dark, unsocial, jealous, cruel and beastly, in its tranquil state. They are strongly addicted to the rough and violent passions; and when roused, their revenge is vindictive, deadly and horrid beyond expression.

The Christians of Asia are generally in Turkey. Their state is truly deplorable. They are literally trampled in the dust; and the vilest of mortals reign and triumph over them. They have but a name, that they live, and are dead. They generally subscribe to the tenets, or rather the superstitions of the Greek church, but have departed far from the standard of truth; and their distance from the purity and simplicity of the gospel is immense. It is to be feared, that they retain little more than the name of Christianity.

The provinces of Turkey in Asia exhibit a melancholy proof of the changeable nature of all human affairs. They witness, to every observer, that the most flourishing institutions may decay and perish forever. Those countries were once rich, powerful and happy. They were blessed with a mild and genial climate; they enjoyed freedom and prosperity; they were among the most enlightened and wise of the human race. But how changed is the scene! Such of their advantages, as a bad government could not destroy, nor a barbarous people annihilate, have become

useless, or are altogether unknown. Their fertile fields have lain so long uncultivated, that their fruitfulness is forgotten. Their fine harbors are visited by few sails, except those of foreigners. The ruins of their ancient cities and temples are stupendous proofs of the opulence and glory of former ages, and of the degeneracy and wretchedness of the present times.

If the Turkish power in Europe is on the decline, which is not to be doubted, it is much more so in Asia. The connection between the parts of that extensive empire, is growing more feeble, and evidently declines with the energy of government; a disease natural to great empires, whose distant provinces, if powerful and rebellious, will bring more expense, than profit, to their masters; and, if weak and defenceless, will certainly not be worth defending.

The government of the Turkish empire bears some faint resemblance to the Feudal System; but, in one important respect, perhaps more, to that of the ancient Romans. The revenues of the provinces seem to be farmed out. Each bashaw, or superior lord, undertakes to pay such a sum annually into the public treasury; and he has a province, district, or city allotted him, on which he is to levy that sum, and, in fact, as much more, as his ingenious and merciless avarice can lay hold of. If the province is large, this bashaw or bey commonly parcels it out, in the same manner, to his vassals. Every species of oppression and injustice, of cruelty and extortion is practised, and has been, for so long a time, that the whole country is completely ruined, and, though naturally rich, has become one of the poorest in the world. By these means, the Turkish empire is fast declining, and, by one vigorous effort of some neighbouring power, might be overthrown. Thirty years ago, it was thought the Russians would accomplish it. It is now laid out as a part of the future task of the modern Cesar.

III. ARABIANS.

We have already taken some notice of the origin and general history of the Arabians. A remarkable circumstance respecting them is, that they have never been conquered. For that, however, two very natural reasons may be assigned; first, they have never possessed much, which was worth conquering, or could allure a conqueror—and

secondly, the situation of their country is eminently secure from invasion, especially considering their mode of defence. Their country, which is upwards of a thousand miles square, forms exactly the southwest part of Asia, as Spain and Portugal do of Europe, and is commonly divided into three parts, viz. Arabia Petræa, Arabia Deserta, and Arabia Felix. Arabia Felix, or the Happy, is said to be one of the most delightful regions upon earth. The truth is, these flattering accounts are more frequently taken from legendary tales than from real facts. In such parts of Arabia, as are well watered, vegetation is, indeed, luxuriant beyond conception; and some of the most valuable odors and choice perfumes are the produce of that country. The people generally live in tents, and, of course, their manner of life is roving, like that of the Tartars and Scythians. Obtaining a precarious subsistence with little labor, they are addicted to every species of theft. They will receive you with kindness; entertain you with the utmost hospitality; divide with you their last loaf; and then increase their store, by stealing from you all you have. They seem to prefer not to take life; but, on an emergency they will rob and murder.

Arabia has been governed, at times, by powerful monarchs, who have brought great and very effective armies into the field; and various attempts have been made to subdue and explore that country by their powerful neighbors. Arabia Felix is, indeed, a sequestered country. It is skirted round on all sides by seas and sandy deserts; and the nature of the country and the modes of fighting, practised by the Arabs, have rendered it difficult and dangerous of access; and it has been regarded as a kind of mysterious and forbidden ground.

The last attempt to conquer this country was made by the Turks, commanded, if we mistake not, by Amurath II. about the year 1468. The haughty Turk, at the head of a great army, flushed with continual victory, advanced into Arabia, determined to rend the veil, which had long covered that country, and to know what was in it, and whether it was worth conquering. As he advanced toward the interior of the country, a herald, on horseback, met him, and warned him to retire, telling him, that though the Arabians had no war with the Turks, yet, if he advanced farther, he would have reason to repent of his temerity. The sultan treated the message with contempt, and pushed

forward at the head of his army. At length, there was perceived a cloud of dust arising, and before the cause of it could be well discovered, his army was attacked by a formidable column of 40,000 horse. Their approach was like a whirlwind; and the Turks, already wearied with wading in the sand, were blinded and suffocated with dust, and were cut in pieces without much resistance. The sultan mounted on a fleet horse, had the good fortune to make his escape, with a few of his guards, and recover his own dominions, and being fully satisfied with one attempt upon Arabia, he chose rather to sustain his disgrace, than retrieve his honor by hazarding a second.

The Arabian horses are famous for strength and swiftness; and the men of that country are excellent horsemen. So great is their dexterity, that it is said, they will throw forward their lances and recover them from the ground, while on full speed. Their mode of fighting is extremely desultory, and their military tactics peculiar to themselves; yet their attack is fierce and terrible, and can only be resisted by the most disciplined valor.

The Arabic language is soft, liquid and harmonious, by reason of an uncommon prevalence of vowel sounds. Notwithstanding the singular character of this people, they have not been destitute of science. During the dark ages, the Saracens were, perhaps, the most scientific people in the world. They introduced learning into Europe. Several of the sciences they improved; and they justly claim the honor of being the inventors of algebra. In arithmetic, we follow them generally, and especially in the use of their numerical characters.

It is both difficult and dangerous for Europeans to travel in that country. The hardships and perils, to which they must be exposed, are very great. Of course the present state of the country cannot be very well known. We shall close on this article with remarking, how wonderfully fitted mankind are to sustain the inconveniences of all climates. The Bedouin Arabs, in large collections or hordes, at certain seasons of the year, will visit the seaports and commercial cities, for the purpose of bartering their commodities, and procuring such articles as they need. When this is done, they plunge again into the trackless regions of their native deserts, where they spend the year. But how they live, or what they subsist upon, that Being only knows, who clothes the fields with grass, and feeds the young ravens, when they cry.

IV. PERSIANS.

The Persians alone of the ancient empires in the West of Asia, have preserved and perpetuated their existence as an independent nation.* They were, indeed, subdued by Alexander; but that conquest, at last, terminated in the overthrow of the Greeks themselves. The Persians became surprisingly renovated, and were able, on the decline of the Greeks, to resist the arms of Rome, as well as those of the Scythians, Saracens, Turks and Russians. In the year of Christ, 1750, the celebrated Thamas Kouli Khan ascended the Persian throne, and was one of the most powerful monarchs of his time. He invaded India, took Delhi, and returned to his own dominions, loaded with immense riches. No power baffled and defeated the Turks oftener, than the Persians did; and Emir Hamzi, the famous Persian, was doubtless, the greatest warrior in Asia during his time. Had he not been cruelly murdered, as was supposed, by the order of his unnatural father, he would probably have put a final stop to the progress of the Turkish arms.

The Persians, as a nation, are brave, polite, civil, and courteous to strangers; but extremely ostentatious, vain-glorious and proud. Their country, like Arabia, can boast of some most pleasant and delightful places. All travellers speak in raptures of the richness, luxuriance and pleasantness of the vale of Shiraus; but, in general, Persia is excessively dry, having few rivers, brooks, or springs of water. It is no easy matter to conceive, how the inhabitants obtain a sufficiency of water for necessary uses. They seldom have rain, and no country has a more arid atmosphere.

In very northern climates, dire necessity compels mankind to continual labor, to avoid perishing with cold and hunger. In the middle countries of the temperate zone, industry is partly necessary to subsistence; but it is oftener prompted by honor and ambition. But as we approach the torrid zone, the earth produces more spontaneously; where it is fruitful, it is abundantly so; and the people are able to live with little exertion. It is impossible, that the inhabitants of hot climates, as for instance, of Arabia and Persia, should exercise the laborious industry of England and Holland; and, of course, they are provided for without. It is

* The Arabians can hardly be considered as a political body, constituting an empire.

however worthy of remark, and of gratitude to Providence, that in very hot climates, great industry is rewarded with great profit and advantage; as in the cases of ancient Carthage and Egypt. If the people of southern climates, adapting their labors to the nature of their countries, would practise the industry of the North, empire, independence and glory would soon return to those countries they have long forsaken; and would certainly give a preference to their ancient seats.

To form a just estimate of any nation, it is necessary to look carefully into their internal, as well as external state. Our views of the people of Asia, in these respects, must be imperfect and superficial, at best. There is but little intercourse between the Persians and any nation of Europe. The wide difference in language, manners, religion and government, sets bars between them very difficult to be passed. We cannot but believe, that the condition of the great body of the people in Persia, is very miserable. The superstition, absurdities and even vices of their religion, are extreme. Their government is cruel, capricious, and arbitrary. Many things are there sanctioned by custom, which in any part of Europe would fill mankind with horror and rage, if we except Turkey; and even the Turkish government is less despotic than the Persian.

People of fashion in this country are graceful in their persons; and although their complexion is somewhat darker than that of the European nations, yet their countenances, rather Roman than Grecian, are expressive, and often display the most delicate lines of beauty. But the common people, who are much exposed to the sun, are considerably swarthy.

The Persians have neither greatly excelled, nor been greatly deficient, in literature. The late justly celebrated Sir William Jones, the most skilful in Asiatic learning of any European of modern times, has given some elegant specimens of Persian poetry in English translation. They can, however, boast of no very great writers, either in poetry or prose. Notwithstanding all their attainments, they must be considered in the light of barbarians, and it is difficult to say, whether they are now emerging from ignorance and barbarity, or sinking deeper in them.

V. TARTARY.

The boundaries of Tartary have never been ascertained. The central regions of Asia, from time immemorial, have been inhabited by numerous tribes of roving people. They have rarely been combined under one head, although that event is supposed to have taken place in the 13th century, under the reign of Ghenghis Khan, and again in the 15th, under Tamerlane. These people were anciently called Scythians. Their character has been surprisingly uniform in all ages. During the time of the four great monarchies, whose history has been sketched in the first volume of this work, they were but too well known by their formidable irruptions into the civilized provinces of Asia and Europe; the first of which was in the reign of Cyaxares I. king of Media.

Our best geographers state very little with certainty concerning the vast countries of Tartary. Travelling in those countries is difficult and dangerous; and the nature of the intercourse, kept up with them by their more civilized neighbors, is not such, as to draw very satisfactory intelligence from them. They may be regarded as fruitful sources of regret and sorrow. From various circumstances and known facts, it is not to be doubted, that the middle parts of Asia equal in richness and fertility, and especially in pleasantness and beauty, any part of the continent. Though vastly distant from the ocean, the countries are well watered, and extend almost the width of the temperate zone. They have numerous lakes, where numberless rivers and rivulets discharge their waters. Their majestic rivers meander slowly through delightful and extensive plains. The verdure of an almost perpetual spring clothes their banks in perennial bloom and sweetness. Yet those fair scenes seemed formed only to be seen by the eye of savages, never to be enriched by handsome villages and flourishing cities; or made the charming abodes of science, virtue, order and humanity.

The Tartars, though not entire savages, are but little better. They are very slovenly in their persons and dress, and have no notion of cleanliness, taste or order in their habitations. Their property consists chiefly in horses and cattle, of which some of them possess a great number. Their title to land is mere occupancy. When they have

consumed the pastures of a particular place, they remove to some other. They claim no title to any place, but what they possess for the time being. In some places, however, they have habitations more settled, and do even live in cities.

They seem to have no regular or consistent notions of religion or government. They commonly profess subjection to some chieftain, and in time of war, or upon an excursion for rapine, follow his standard; but, as to the nature of their civil government, or whether they have any, properly speaking, we are not prepared to say. They certainly have ideas of a distinction between right and wrong, on which they found certain maxims, resembling a code of morality; but their penal code differs little from an indefinite rule of personal retaliation.

There seems to be no prospect of their improving in either of the three important articles of religion,* government or civilization. We think ourselves warranted in saying, that they have not improved for the last two thousand years, in either of these respects.

VI. INDIA.

The river Indus gives name to nearly one quarter of the surface of the terraqueous globe. One of the great oceans, half the islands in the world, nearly a quarter of the continent of Asia, and all the original inhabitants of the new continent, are called for it. The country of India forms the south part of Asia, as Russia does the north. North of it lies Tartary; east and south, the Pacific and Indian oceans; and west, the empire of Persia.

The wealth of India has, in every age, been even proverbial. So great is the fame of its wealth, that when we hear its name pronounced, we immediately think of a land of wealth. The riches of India consist in the natural fertility of the soil, which is heightened and perfected by the best of climates; the advantages of commerce and navigation; the greatest plenty of all the necessaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; rich mines; and abundance of gold, silver, and jewels; and a race of people who seem to be naturally virtuous,† honest, pacific, ingenious, indus-

* The religious prospects of the Tartars appear to be a little more encouraging, than they were, when the above remark was written.—*Ed.*

† It is ascertained that the Hindoos are generally at a great remove from virtue.—*Ed.*

trious, somewhat enterprising, and immensely numerous. In the course of their commerce, they are not fond of receiving the commodities of other nations in exchange for their own. They never pay money, nor make war upon other nations.

Exclusive of the internal trade of India, that country has from the earliest ages, carried on two great branches of foreign commerce; one by land, and the other by sea. As from that country, every thing valuable, beautiful, rich, or useful was to be obtained, all commercial nations sought an interest in its trade. The Chinese, the Tartars, Persians, Arabians, Syrians and Egyptians, traded with them by land; and the numberless commodities of India were transported by numerous caravans, on the backs of camels, dromedaries, mules and horses, to very distant nations. The wealth and glory of many ancient cities of Asia, rose from this trade; of which the splendid and magnificent city of Palmyra was once the grand mart and emporium. This city, situated between Arabia and Syria, bordering on the deserts, was once the deposit of the wealth of the East, from whence it was again dispersed through numerous channels to the West of Asia, to Europe and Africa. This city, far more splendid, but less warlike, than Rome itself, flourished for ages, and was at length destroyed by the emperor Aurelian. Its last monarch was the illustrious but unfortunate queen, Zenobia, whose counsels were directed by the celebrated Longinus, as already noticed, one of the last luminaries of Grecian literature.

The Phenicians, Carthaginians, Greeks, Sicilians and Romans, and, in later times, the Italians and many other powers of Europe, have pursued the Indian trade by sea. Till the Portuguese had doubled the Cape of Good Hope, the common voyage to India was from the ports of the Red Sea, through the straits of Babelmandel, and across the Indian ocean. The majestic ruins of Palmyra demonstrate the former greatness of her wealth and commercial importance. Indeed the same remark applies to the great cities of Egypt—to Tyre, Sidon, &c.

At present, the naval commerce of India is almost engrossed by Great Britain, whose subjects, tributaries, or allies, extending far up the river Ganges, are said to comprehend some of the fairest and richest parts of India. The British trade to India has become the most lucrative, important and dignified system of commerce, ever carried

on. It cannot, indeed, be viewed without astonishment. The English people, by means of the South Sea and India companies, are able almost to command the wealth and credit of the globe.

The interior parts of India, especially beyond the Ganges, are but little known. It is a very great country, and somewhat more mountainous, than the more northerly parts of Asia. The people of India, regarding the whole section of Asia called by their name, are probably among the most mild and pacific of all the human race. They never have been famous for war in any age. They have doubtless had wars, both foreign and domestic, and perhaps several, of which we have no knowledge. They have several times been invaded, in different ages of the world, as it is said, by Sesostris, Semiramis, Cyrus, Alexander, Ghenghis Khan, Tamerlane, and of late, by the Persians, under Thamas Kouli Khan. But the English invasion of India will be attended with the most serious consequences to that country; and it is feared, with little good. Their conquests comprehend a greater territory and much more numerous population, than they possess in Europe.* But if those conquests have increased the power of Great Britain, they have produced a contrary effect on the unhappy Indians. They have quite altered the face of things in that country. The name of Hastings will descend to posterity blackened with indelible guilt and infamy; and it would be well for the English people if Hastings were the only man, who had been guilty of exercising cruelty, extortion and outrage upon the defenceless Indians.

Hastings, after remaining long enough in power in India, to amass a princely fortune—after practising the most horrid, outrageous cruelty, and every crime, which can blacken and deform the human character, returned in triumph to his native country, to enjoy in quiet the spoils of innocence, and to riot in luxury on the fruits of extortion. A feint was made towards bringing him to justice; but what was the issue? Instead of suffering an infamous death for crimes worthy of eternal perdition, his wealth enabled him to set justice at defiance, his infinite turpitude was gilded over with a title of nobility, and he became *Lord Hastings*:

* The British subjects in Europe are supposed to be about 17 millions; those in India, about 90 millions.—*Ed.*

The English conquests in India will probably be attended with disastrous consequences to that country. The Indians will directly lose all motives to industry; and in addition to their own constitutional and national vices, they will learn those of their cruel conquerors and unjust oppressors. Industry and enterprise can only go hand in hand with liberty and justice. Those people, finding themselves oppressed, insulted, crushed, and forever abandoned to hopeless slavery and misery, will give up all as lost—will become utterly useless to themselves and others, and regard death as the only alternative of hope. The country will grow miserable and poor; and will follow the footsteps of Carthage, of Egypt, and of all Western Asia. Trade will gradually fall; and the wealth and abundance of those countries exist only on the page of history. Should they change masters, they would still be the losers. Should Great Britain fall, even independence might revisit India too late. What advantage could Egypt or Syria reap from the fall of the Turkish empire? Nothing but the slow revolving wheel of numerous ages, or the more immediate intervention of almighty power, can restore those unhappy countries. Before any probable or natural* course of events can restore the West of Asia to what it once was, it is probable the destiny of the earth itself will be complete, and the wheels of nature cease to move.

The Indian character and temper seem very mild and placid; yet no people are more inveterate or more obstinate in their religious prejudices. With them, religion is, properly speaking, the property and business of a particular class or set of people. The rest neither know, nor are allowed to know or care, any thing about it. They have certain notions of the Deity, of futurity, and of virtue and vice. The people, at large, are required to perform a certain routine of duties, consisting chiefly in useless formalities, and unmeaning or ridiculous ceremonies. But as to the great business of intercourse with the Deity, or knowledge of him, it is wrapped in mystery, and belongs to the priests or bramins.

The immense country of India, from the river Indus to the eastern ocean, was probably never united under one government. Its present state is not clearly known to the

* The author undoubtedly believed, that by the grace of God, that wretched country would ere long rejoice and blossom as the rose.—*E. A.*

best of our geographers. Monarchy is the only kind of government existing in any part of Asia; but, in India, it seems to be of a less fierce, cruel, and despotic nature, than it is in the west. The most predominant crime among the Hindoos is said to be suicide. They have little fear of futurity, and are impatient of present evils. They therefore take as they suppose, the directest way to get rid of them.

When shall they become free, enlightened, and happy? As far as we know, they rather degenerate, than improve. In the time of Cyrus the Great, they were more enterprising, and probably far more powerful, than they now are. Under the command of Porus, they made a formidable resistance to the conquering arms of Alexander; but now, three or four British regiments will strike terror through India, subdue their most powerful princes, and levy contributions on the most opulent provinces.

VII. CHINA.

The Chinese are truly a wonderful people; and China, in various respects, is the most extraordinary empire, that ever existed. Whether we regard length of duration, number of inhabitants, their uniformity, steady economy and amazing industry, the world has never furnished a parallel to China.

According to the best accounts, which can be obtained on the subject, China has been a great and flourishing empire nearly 3,900 years. She has held one steady and dignified course, while the nations in the West of Asia and Europe have been fluctuating, like waves, and expiring, like meteors in the troubled sky.

The accounts given of the population of China, though seemingly credible, are perfectly astonishing. There are said to be above three hundred millions of people in that empire—of course more than one third of the inhabitants of the whole globe.* But China possesses every advantage necessary to sustain a great population. Nearly as large as half of Europe, her territories lie in the pleasantest part of the temperate zone, and abound in many of the most useful productions of the earth. China produces whatever might be expected from an excellent soil in the highest

* The inhabitants of the Chinese empire amount probably to about 185 millions. See Worcester's Gazetteer and Geography.--Ed.

state of cultivation. Such is the unparalleled industry and diligence of this people, that their country, though more than 1200 miles square, is all under the most advantageous improvement. They suffer no land to lie waste. Their steep side-hills and mountains, even to their summits, are tilled with as much care, as we till our gardens. The very mild winters, which prevail in the middle and southern parts, render their subsistence attainable with far less labor and expense. They have no need, that their country should be half covered with forest to supply them with fuel.

The Chinese subsist more on farinaceous food, than the Europeans. Their country produces vast quantities of rice, which forms the chief article of their diet, and is a most nutritive and agreeable kind of food. Regularity of life, industry, subordination and a particular cast of genius, form the discriminating traits in the Chinese character. In many nations, and especially in Europe, there is a certain unevenness of mind, an instability and eccentricity of character, which render mankind fickle, rash, volatile, and often perfidious. The Chinese have less of this than any other nation. Their habits, customs and modes of life are laid on such solid foundations, and have, for an uninterrupted course of nearly forty centuries, acquired a maturity and permanence, which will be broken up only with their empire.

Europeans, who have seen the interior parts of China, are astonished with the marks of their industry, which appear in every thing that strikes the eye. The vastness of their cities, their highways, their bridges of amazing form and construction, and especially their canals, exceed those of all nations. The country is peculiarly favorable for canals; and it is intersected and cut into almost numberless islands, by those beautiful artificial rivers. Many of their vessels are a kind of floating houses, which can carry sail, in which families live, are brought up, and transact all their business.

The face of their country is formed by spacious plains, and regular hills, with some mountains. The suburbs of their great cities are formed by large and populous villages; and their villages, overspread all the country; so that you scarcely know what is city, and what is country. The country at large resembles an unbounded continuity of flourishing towns and villages. Their style of building is

not very superb; yet, in the article of house-painting, no other nation equals them. Their houses are covered with paint, which appears like varnish or japan work, which gives them a glossy brightness, and will resist the sun and the weather. The internal structure of their houses is far inferior to those of our own country. But there are certain evils, which, at times, result from their immense population. In spite of all their industry, they are considerably liable to a scarcity of provisions.

The people of China are divided into various orders, among which an invariable, absolute subordination reigns. These classes know, perfectly well, their rank, their privileges and their duties. They seldom interfere with one another; nor does any person rise to a higher rank, unless it is by some uncommon occurrence. The various orders of people are distinguished by the color and fashion of their dress; and what is very remarkable, the dress of all ranks and orders is regulated by law.

The Chinese monarchy, though absolute, seems to be the mildest, and perhaps is the wisest in the world. It is in a great measure patriarchal. The sovereign is regarded as the father of his people. He consults their interest, endeavours to promote their happiness; and they, in return, seldom resist his will. The government is extremely jealous of the powers of Europe; and with great reason. The late English embassy, conducted by lord Macartney, proved utterly useless. The emperor of China, after having graciously received, and for a while entertained the English ambassador, gave him a kind of tablet, on which was written certain moral and civil maxims of advice, respecting the conduct of kings, and desired him to present it to his master, the king of England, as a token of his friendship.

The Chinese despise the idea of receiving improvements from other nations, and especially from Europe. In religion, government, art and science, they adhere firmly to their ancient customs and maxims. Their religion is a mixture of superstition, idolatry, and certain moral maxims and rules drawn from the institutions of Confucius, their ancient law giver.

The conduct of the Jesuits and other Romish missionaries, was the cause of closing and barring the doors of China against all Christian nations. They were found to be interfering with the government and internal policy of

that country, and, of course, were forever debarred all intercourse. That was a most unfortunate event, as it fixed in the minds of the Chinese, a prejudice, not soon to be wiped away.

VIII. ASIA IN GENERAL.

1. It is time, we dismiss the consideration of particulars, and take a more general view of this noble and important quarter of the earth. The Almighty Creator and Governor of the world has distinguished and dignified Asia above the other grand divisions of the globe, in various respects. Here the grand progenitors of the human race began to people and replenish the earth. Here the delightful bowers of Paradise diffused their fragrance, and displayed their beauty. Here the first empires were founded; and the first principles of social order and civil combination began their career. From this, as from a central point, the first families of the earth were spread abroad, and grew into nations and kingdoms. Here the mighty work of redemption was accomplished, by the incarnation and death of the Son of God, to bring about which, was the ultimate design of creation and Providence; and here was first set up that kingdom, which is to endure throughout all generations, and which is finally to fill the earth with its glory.

2. As Asia is the largest of the grand divisions of the globe, so it, in general, possesses the most excellent soil, and the fairest and most regular climates. It produces, accordingly, every thing useful, valuable, rich and beautiful. The most important and useful kinds of grain; all the precious metals; a great variety of most valuable jewels; the richest silks; the most excellent drugs and medicines; and in a word, all the necessaries and all the luxuries of life, are there obtained in the richest abundance, and many of them, with little labor or expense.

3. Asia seems to have been a region best adapted to the culture of the human species. We infer this from a remarkable event, viz. that the savage nations of Europe, Africa and America are, and have been in every age, far more savage, and sunk much deeper on the scale of reason, than those of Asia. Indeed, it has been affirmed by some, that a savage nation never existed in Asia. The Scythians and Tartars were nearest to a savage state; but how far, indeed, were they above that state in several important

respects. Their skill and power in war have been far superior to those of savages in the other quarters of the world. They nearly conquered the Medes and Persians; and were always a terror to the Greeks and Romans. Their invasions have been conducted with a deep policy; and their battle was always terrible.

4. The Asiatics are generally of a milder and more pacific and amiable character, than most other nations. This is very perceivable in the Russian empire, as soon as you pass out of Europe into Asia; you observe milder manners, and even a more soft and engaging countenance, together with more hospitality, and urbanity of treatment. The Persians and Hindoos are graceful and elegant in their form; and their deportment is politely civil; indeed, Persia may, in some respects, be called the *France* of Asia. The ground we have taken in this article, is justified by comparing the wars of Asia with those of the other parts of the world.

A few great conquerors, in distant ages of the world, have made considerable commotions; but in regard to wars, when did Asia ever resemble Europe in the times of Alexander, Cesar, Constantine, Charlemagne, Lewis XIV. or Napoleon? When was Asia seen in the state, in which Europe has been for ten years past? Should it be objected, that they are pacific, because they are ignorant; for the sake of peace then, let all nations become ignorant, as soon as possible. But that is not a fact. It is not owing to their ignorance. The governments of China, India, Persia and Arabia know as well the state of their neighbors, as those of Europe do.

According to the tenor of the above objection, it is much best for nations to be ignorant. If knowledge will set men to killing one another with diabolical rage and infernal malice; yea, if it will make men, in this respect, worse than devils, it had better be let alone. Our Saviour affirms, that there is a degree of union in Satan's kingdom; and a great poet declares,

“ Devil with devil damn'd, firm concord hold—

“ Men only disagree, of creatures rational.”—*Milton*.

5. That the nations of Asia have never sunk so low into a savage state, as many others, seems to be owing to their very great natural advantages, of which, if they had made a proper improvement, they might have risen to an

astonishing height of learning, wisdom and virtue. But here they have failed. On the soft bosom of luxury, they have been hushed to a long and inglorious repose. Their eyes seem forever shut to all true and solid glory. They never once look up to that distant and lofty summit, to which, man may rise by energy, by perseverance, integrity and virtue. They place the sum of happiness in rest—a most foolish and absurd philosophy, equally opposed to reason, virtue and the nature of all intelligent beings.

6. Monarchy prevails every where in Asia, and that in its simplest form. It seems in vain to talk of natural advantages, when it is certain there is no nation in all this immense region, which has any proper knowledge or use of its inherent rights. Natural rights may as well not exist, as to be neither known nor enjoyed; and such is the uniform condition of the people of Asia. If, in any case, the strictness and energy of despotism fail, it is not owing to the lenient influence of reason and virtue, but it is where government gives way to anarchy; and all principles of order fail before ignorance, vice and barbarity.

Nor is man there more ignorant of his own rights, than he is of the true character of his Maker, and of his duty and obligation to him. There are still some Christian churches in Asia; but, for the most part, they have little of Christianity, but the name. In contemplating Asia, we have before us, a vast region of mental and moral darkness. There are few circumstances, which look like the dawn of improvement; and, from all we can discover, this whole quarter of the globe is undergoing a gradual decline toward a state of barbarity. To this observation, however, Russia, certainly, if not China, forms an exception. It is highly questionable, whether the increasing intercourse of Europeans with the Eastern Asiatics, is of any valuable tendency to the latter. The horrid wickedness, on every occasion, displayed by Europeans, has fixed in the minds of those nations, invincible prejudices against their government, general character and especially against their religion.

It is a melancholy reflection, how little the conduct of Christian nations has been calculated to recommend their religion to their unbelieving neighbors. Will heathens judge of the nature of Christianity, by the conduct of a few solitary individuals? or will they be more likely to draw their conclusions from the conduct of a nation? What conclusion, then, must the Chinese, Indians and Islanders, draw,

concerning the Christian system, from the conduct of such Europeans, as have visited their country; as of the English, Dutch, Portuguese, &c.? They must conclude Christianity to be a cloak for every species of villany—to be but another name for cruelty, injustice, dishonesty, intrigue, perfidy, and every crime that is atrocious and enormous; and of all religions in the world, they must think it the worst.

It is not strange, that the missionaries, sent into those countries to preach the gospel, have met with impediments, and that their success has been small. It is rather astonishing, that they ever, in one instance, got a candid and patient hearing. The Indians, especially, have a strong attachment to their own religion, handed down from their ancestors; and what reason they have to detest and abhor the people of Europe, is a matter notorious to the universe.

It seems to be matter of regret, that the fair and spacious realms of Asia should lie, from age to age, void of intellectual culture; that the human mind should there be fettered by the absurdest superstitions, and inflated with error and falsehood, instead of being expanded and enriched by the divine, immortal food of knowledge and virtue, drawn from the fountain of eternal perfection. But so it is. These things are governed by an unseen hand. The time may come, when the face of the moral, and, of course, of the natural world, shall be changed—when the wilderness and solitary place shall blossom like the rose—when all the families and nations of the earth shall be of one mind, and shall allay their thirst at the same pure fountain of heavenly wisdom. The Indian shall then no longer adore the sun, nor think to wash away his moral pollutions in the stream of the Ganges. The Abyssinian shall no more worship the father of waters; nor the arctic savage the genius of storms and darkness; but all nations shall adore one God, submit to his moral government, rejoice in his perfections, and confide in his grace. May that time soon arrive. May the changes, which must prepare its way be hastened, till HE shall come, whose right it is to reign.

CHAPTER XII.

PRESENT STATE OF AFRICA.

THE continent of Africa is shaped like a pyramid,* whose base is washed by the Mediterranean sea—its western side, by the Atlantic, and its eastern, by the Indian ocean; while its point, or apex, projects southwardly into the great South Sea. This vast peninsula is joined to Asia at its northeast corner by the isthmus of Suez, about sixty miles over. It extends from 37 degrees north, to 34 degrees south latitude, and from about 17 west, to 51 degrees east longitude, and is 4,300 miles long, and 3,500 miles wide; and is supposed to contain 8,506,208 square miles.

The commercial advantages of Africa, in point of local situation, may well compare with those of the other quarters of the globe. Its proximity to the great oceans and their numberless islands, and its position with respect to the other continents, all declare its situation to be highly favorable for every interest of commerce. It lies in the bosom of the Atlantic, Southern and Indian oceans. Asia and the East Indies stretch eastwardly of it, and are accessible either through the Indian ocean, or from the Red Sea through the straits of Babelmandel. From the northern shores of Africa, all the Mediterranean lies in view; nor was it a tedious voyage for the Africans to go into the Black Sea; and, from the strait of Gibraltar, they coasted with ease along all the West of Europe, even to the Baltic or Norwegian seas.

If their commercial advantages are great, their agricultural are, or at least once were, if possible, still greater. All ancient history speaks in the highest terms of the extreme fertility of the lands of Africa.† We cannot say positively whether this fertility was universal; but it undoubtedly was common to all the northern shores. It is at least possible, that the continent of Africa was once as deeply clothed with vegetation, as that of South America, though, indeed, not very probable. The continual action

* Or rather, like a triangle.—*Ed.*

† By Africa, the ancients understood *Africa Proper*, a very small part of the vast country of Africa.—*Ed.*

of an almost vertical sun, for many ages, may have effected great changes in the nature of the soil. From many late observations, it appears, that the sands of Africa have spread farther north, and are making gradual encroachments on the fertile countries of Egypt and Barbary. Those countries, of course, grow more inhospitable, and more thinly inhabited.

This country abounds in the precious metals, and in many valuable natural productions. It may be called the region of animal life; since there are more than double the number of species of animals in it, than there are in the other quarters of the globe. Egypt and Carthage were both, in their turn, great and powerful. Science first rose in Egypt; and Carthage held a very doubtful contest with Rome for universal empire. Happy indeed it was for the world, that contest terminated as it did.

But whatever Africa could once boast—whatever may have been its natural advantages, it now presents to the eye of the traveller, one uniform, immense region of ignorance, vice, barbarity and misery. If we enter that continent, by the isthmus of Suez, Egypt first receives us; which, to speak in the true spirit and style of ancient prediction, is *a base kingdom*. Still elevated by some faint glimmerings of civilization above the rude savage, the people there have just knowledge enough to render more conspicuous their depravity. They exhibit an astonishing specimen of the effects of bad government, and of the destructive tendency of corrupt morals. Perhaps no nation is more miserable, than the Egyptians. They seem to be crushed under every species of tyranny, and have no spirit left either to assert their rights, or avail themselves of any one advantage they so conspicuously possess.

Proceeding from Egypt, to the source of the Nile, among the mountains of Abyssinia, there is a change of prospect, but it is going only from bad to worse. The traveller has evidently made an advance toward that degradation of intellect, which marks the mere savage. The people of Abyssinia are overwhelmed in vice, void of the cultivations of science. They are sunk too low to be susceptible of much government. They are, as a nation, a cruel, ignorant, vile, uncleanly race.

From Abyssinia descending down the eastern shores of Africa along the coast of Zanguebar to Caffraria and the

cape of Good Hope, the prospect, as far as known to travellers, is nearly the same.

From the cape of Good Hope, passing up the western shores of Africa, they are found no better than the eastern. In this western tour, lies the coast of Guinea; those countries, where Christian nations have carried on a traffic *so highly honorable* to their name and character; and where they have a town or fort, called *Christiansburg*; a name wonderfully adapted to the nature of the business transacted there!

From the slave and gold coast, proceeding northward, the great rivers Gambia and Senega, or Senegal, are passed, and the states of Barbary next receive the traveller, wearied with roving through scenes of barbarity, wretchedness and darkness. Turning eastward, he passes the states of Barbary and Egypt, once fine and flourishing countries. But now, what are they? How low are they fallen.

The central parts of Africa are unknown. The desert of Sahara is an immense region of sand, over which refreshing showers of rain never distil their copious blessings; nor does the bow of heaven display its beauteous arch on the retiring cloud. There the verdant meadow, the flowery vale and the waving forest, are never seen; the tinkling rivulet is never heard; nor does the murmuring brook invite the traveller to repose on its shady banks. But there the hot and sultry winds, in furious tornadoes, hurl the sandy billows to the heavens, and sport in fearful showers and storms of dust. Instead of the music of birds—instead of the sweet and solemn serenade of the nightingale, those gloomy deserts resound with the roar of lions and tigers—the deadly hisses of serpents, and the horrid howlings of nameless dragons and frightful monsters. Those dreary climes have furnished a grave for a number of enterprising travellers. The expectations of the public were highly raised from the known abilities and daring spirit of the enterprising Mungo Park. Much information was expected from his travels in the interior of Africa; but he has fallen a prey to the merciless barbarity of those faithless savages. Mungo Park deserves a monument among heroes, sages and philosophers.

The northern shores of Africa, generally called the States of Barbary, are of the Mahometan religion. Ethiopia and Abyssinia have something, which resembles, but very remotely, the Christian religion. The middle and south-

ern parts are Pagan. As to government, the most complete and barbarous despotism reigns in every part of Africa. Though ancient Egypt may be regarded as the cradle of science, yet in her maturity, she has long since forsaken every part of Africa, and left even Egypt to the gloomy and horrid reign of superstition, ignorance and barbarity.

The middle and southern nations of Africa, are utterly incapable of projecting or accomplishing any important enterprise. They spend their strength, and exhaust their rage, in petty, but cruel and exterminating wars upon each other. Their captives, they either kill, and, it is said devour, or sell to the very humane and merciful navigators of Europe and America; who bring and sell them for slaves to the philanthropic republicans of the United States! where they are bought and sold, and treated with as little tenderness and mercy, as brutes. How consonant this practice is to the rules of the Christian religion, or of a free government, and how likely to inspire those unhappy beings with respect for the one or the other, let the impartial judge.

While unprincipled navigators are thus dragging the wretched Africans from one scene of misery to another still more lingering and dreadful, the northern shores of that continent produce a race of men far more hardy and daring; who, as if to avenge the quarrel of their countrymen, are the enemies of all Christian nations; whose ships infest the seas, and whose robberies and piracies are dangerous to many nations. With regard to a proper mode of treatment of the Barbary powers, there seems to be but one alternative. Either their friendship must be purchased with frequent and large donations, or they must be conquered and disabled to continue their aggressions.

But with regard to the slave trade, root and branch, first and last, in all its motives, measures, concomitants and consequences, if ever any human undertaking merited the deepest abhorrence of men, and the heaviest curse of Almighty God, it is surely that. When we reflect on the pangs, which those poor wretches must feel, who fall into the vortex of this infernal traffic, when they see themselves plunged into hopeless slavery, and where, if either they or their posterity should ever gain their freedom, still their color must sink them utterly below all consideration and respect, humanity must bleed for them.

The atrocity of the business is enhanced, by the various, continual and monstrous cruelties, inflicted on them, for the slightest faults. And, can it be thought strange, if their deplorable circumstances should often drive them into the most desperate crimes and outrageous misdemeanors? The great and awful catastrophe of this perfidious commerce, is still among the events of futurity; for, let it not be considered as an idle and groundless surmise, the importation of slaves in such numbers, into this country, will, on some future day, affect the repose of the United States.

The continent of Africa has few rivers or mountains. The principal mountains are the Atlas, (which gives name to the Atlantic ocean,) Sierra Leona and the Mountains of the Moon. The chief rivers are the Senegal, Gambia, Niger, and the Nile; and there are few brooks and springs of water. A country poorly watered, abounding with immense plains, which lie basking beneath a vertical sun, must be unfriendly to vegetation, and can merit no better appellation than that given to it by the Latin poet, "*Arida nutrix leonum.*"*

At present, there is not a free government in Africa; and, unless we can make an exception of Carthage, there never was one. There is not a civilized nation there, unless Egypt and the states of Barbary can be called such. And is their state growing better? Alas! what circumstance can take place—what event arise, which shall meliorate their condition? shall the progress of conquest open the way for any fortunate changes, or happy revolutions? No. Had they any thing, which could invite an enlightened conqueror, yet who can conquer, who can withstand or endure, their climate? But they have nothing to allure a conqueror; they lie beyond his reach, and the most of them even beyond the journies, of fame. Shall the native force of their genius ever break their fetters? Shall a Cyrus, an Alexander, a Charlemagne, a Peter, a Washington, or a Bonaparte, ever arise and lead them to fame, independence, freedom and happiness? Or shall they rise to that state by the slow and gradual progress of art and science? Alas! the flight of twenty centuries has extinguished all hopes of any change for the better. Their mental degradation has given their destiny a gloom as deep, as that which the scorching heavens have spread over their complexion.

* A dry nurse of lions.—*Ed.*

Their actual state may be worse than it now is—their prospects cannot well be worse. Abandoned to themselves, they seem condemned forever to trace the dreary road, which leads toward the extinction of intelligence, virtue and happiness.

Shall they look for relief from the more prosperous, enlightened and happy regions of the earth? from Europe, or America? Better would it be for them, if they were separated from us by a wall as high as heaven. Do our vessels approach their shores, but when allured by the hopes of surreptitious gain, or promiscuous plunder? When they descry our sails on their seas, have they not reason to conclude, that we are coming to cheat, to plunder, or to seize and carry them to a fate worse than death? And have they not reason to deprecate our visits, to detest our policy, religion, or rather irreligion, and government, and to invoke the vengeance of heaven upon our name? Nothing have they to expect from more enlightened nations, but chains and stripes and torments—but slavery, infamy and misery.

It has been often alleged, in defence of the slave-trade, that the Africans, who are brought among Christian people, have thereby, a chance given them to learn and embrace Christianity. Hapless lot! The Father of spirits can, indeed, break through all their prejudices, and force conviction upon them. Almighty Providence could save Jonah, even in a whale's belly. The same can certainly save a negro slave from the southern states, or the West Indies; and as well the savage tribes who live on the banks of the Gambia and Niger. Their enslavers, will, however, be allowed but little credit in the day of retribution, on the ground of effecting their conversion, by forcing husband from wife, and children from their parents, far from their native country into cruel slavery. This will be a sorry plea for Christians in the view of Infinite Wisdom.

The man who justifies slavery, upon this principle, let him put himself in the place of one of those children of misfortune. Let him imagine himself seized, perhaps in the night, and torn from all his friends, and all his heart held dear; bound and forced into a vessel, loaded with wretches like himself; his tears answered with scorn; his cries for pity, with the bloody whip. If he does not perish with contagion, hunger or cruelty on the voyage, he is landed at length, and consigned to a master, who drives him into his fields to labor. He never more sees a friend;

he never more hears from his lost relations ; he sees not a moment's freedom ; his labors are incessant, but not for himself ; his toils are perpetual, and the fruit consigned to his oppressor ; he bids an eternal adieu to contentment, to hope and to enjoyment ; he learns to brook insult by its repetition ; and his only remedy for pain is habit and endurance.

But for what purpose, was he brought from his country ? Why was he forced from the scenes of his youth, and from the cool retreats of his native mountains ? Was it, that he might witness the saving knowledge of the gospel ? That he might become a Christian ? Did they desire to open his prospects into a future life ? to inform his clouded soul of immortal joys ; and aid him in his pilgrimage to heaven ? No. He was deprived of freedom, the dearest pledge of his existence. His mind was not cultivated and improved by science. He was placed among those who hate and despise his nation ; who undervalue him, even for that of which he is innocent, and which he could not possibly avoid ! He is detested for his complexion, and ranked among the brutes for his stupidity. His laborious exertions are extorted from him, to enrich his purchasers ; and his scanty allowance is furnished, only that he may endure his sufferings for their aggrandizement. Where are the incentives, that may induce him to become a Christian ? Alas ! they are crushed beneath a mountain of desperate and hopeless grief ; his views of happiness are depressed, so that he must almost doubt of his natural claim to humanity.

“ Had he religion, think you he could pray !
 “ Ah no ! he steals him to his lonely shed,
 “ What time moist midnight blows her venom'd breath ;
 “ And, musing how he long has toiled and bled,
 “ Seeks shelter only in the arms of death.”

Much, indeed, may be said in praise of the noble and benevolent exertions of many individuals, to promote humanity, order, civility and virtue among those unhappy nations. They have spared no pains, nor expense ; they have encountered the dangers of those inclement climes, and the perils of a barbarous land. Their good will in this godlike work has been blessed. They have been found doing their duty ; and they shall not lose their reward.

Were the nations, which bear the Christian name, generally engaged in this work—were they desirous to meliorate

the condition of savage nations, they might, by a proper course of conduct, at length, remove those prejudices from their minds, which now form insuperable bars to the most benevolent attempts of individuals and societies. Savages derive their views of the character, government and religion of Christian nations, not from the testimony of a few individuals, but from the conduct of those nations. They reason thus: "If Christian nations believe and practise their religion, we are sure it is the worst in the world; therefore, we will not embrace it. But if Christians do *not* practise their religion, it is surely, because they do not believe in it; and if they do not believe, nor practise it, why should we? Why should it challenge our assent and conformity, who do not understand it, when those who do, disregard its dictates?"

There is no certain evidence, that the Africans are inferior to the Asiatics or Europeans in their natural make; and it is highly probable, that their mental powers are impaired, only by their peculiar habits. We have already noticed the figure the people of Egypt and Carthage once made among the nations of the earth. The former were, for many ages, the oracles of science; and the latter were not only the greatest of the ancient commercial nations, but among the most warlike, having produced the second, if not the first, great commander of antiquity.

Some attempt to prove, from the consideration of their color, that they are naturally inferior to white nations. Their color is merely the misfortune of their climate, arising from the heat of the sun and their way of life. Many talk about the mark set upon Cain, and suppose the Africans his descendants—never considering, that the family of Cain perished in the deluge. The blackness of the Africans is perfectly well accounted for from the regular operation of natural causes;* and their inferiority in various respects, from neglecting the proper use of those advantages, which, in other quarters of the globe, have been improved with success.

Whether they are now at the ultimate point of depression, or are to sink still deeper, is known only to the omniscient Ruler. It is impossible to reflect upon their present situation, but with emotions of surprise, grief and compassion.

* See a learned and ingenious treatise on this subject, by the Rev. Dr. Smith, President of Princeton College.

Hapless children of men! when shall light and order pervade the cheerless regions, where you dwell? What power shall heave the adamantine bars, which secure the gates of your dungeon, and bring you forth? When shall the cherub hope smile on you from heaven, and, with a compassionate voice, call you to the pleasures of reason? to the delights of immortality? In the natural course of events, your destiny seems hopeless; no force of words can suitably describe or deplore your case; and your only hope of relief is in Omnipotence. Your deliverer must be a being of almighty power, wisdom and goodness. To that Being, then, let me commend you—to his favor—to his grace—to his everlasting mercy.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE PRESENT STATE OF AMERICA.

THIS important part of the globe claims no share of notice in tracing the great line of history. It is generally considered as unknown to the civilized world, till discovered by Columbus, in 1492; yet, since that period, it has risen rapidly into consideration. Truly important by its vast extent, and the immensity of its natural wealth, in the comparatively short period of three centuries, it has been the theatre of a series of grand and interesting scenes.

America was discovered just after the revival of letters; a time, when the public mind in Europe had been recently roused to action and enterprise. The discovery of so important an object formed an era in the civilized world, by exciting desires and spreading temptations; by rousing the latent fires of ambition; by giving birth to new schemes of policy and speculations; and by originating numberless projects and enterprises, which often disturbed the repose of Europe, and terminated in wars and revolutions.

For an account of those things, we must refer our readers to the histories of Europe; and we wish it were in our power also to refer them to an able, impartial and elegant history of our own country. In the following chapter, it will be our endeavour to present a general view of the present state of America, preparatory to which, a brief sketch will be given of its history since its first settlement.

The American continent extends from about 56 degrees of south latitude to unknown regions about the arctic pole. Its length is more than ten thousand miles; and its mean breadth has never been ascertained, but would fall between two and four thousand miles.* On the east, it is washed by the Atlantic, and on the west, by the Pacific ocean. This continent extends through all climates, comprehends every species of soil, and every conceivable line of geographical feature. It abounds in extensive and beautiful plains, majestic rivers, lofty mountains and prodigious lakes. Its lakes are worthy of the respectable name of inland seas; and its rivers are many of them of such size, that were it not for their rapid current and fresh water, they would be mistaken for bays and arms of the ocean. Its plains are clothed with luxuriant vegetation; its mountains rise with awful grandeur, pierce the clouds, and seem to prop the skies.

The soil of America, if it has no certain claim to superiority, is at least equal to that of Spain, Italy, India, or China. In the United States, as far as we can remark on that article, there is no deficiency. The prodigious exports from several of the states, although in their infancy, are a proof, that the country is made naturally fruitful and rich; and through the whole extensive chain of settlements from the coast of Labrador to Cape Horn, and from thence to California and Kamschatka, the countries are generally healthful.

Nature has thrown the American continent into two grand divisions, separated by the isthmus of Darien. South America is distinguished by the size of its mountains and rivers. The Andes lie on the western coast of South America, and extend the whole length of that continent. These are the most extraordinary mountains in the world, whether we regard the length of their chain, the breadth of their base, or the elevated height of their summits.† The elevation of Chimborazo is more than 20,000 feet above the level of the sea. They extend the whole length

* Supposing the length of America to be 10,000 miles, and the number of square miles 15,000,000, then its mean breadth must be 1500. This cannot be far from the truth.—*Ed.*

† It has been ascertained, that the Himmaleh mountains, between Thibet and Kemaon, are considerably higher than the Andes. See Worcester's *Gaz.*—*Ed.*

of South America; and, indeed, the Allegany mountains in North America, are thought to be a continuation of the same mountains, only interrupted by the gulf of Mexico.

The rivers in South America are no less remarkable, than the mountains. They rise in the eastern declivities of the Andes, down which they rush in numberless torrents and cataracts. From the foot of the Andes, they must wander across the continent to the Atlantic ocean, the distance of 2000 miles. In this long course, which is increased by numerous meanders, they receive a multitude of streams, and, while yet at a great distance from the sea, their volume of water becomes majestic, broad and deep. They roll on with increasing grandeur, and meet other rivers as large as themselves. Before they reach the ocean, their channels are more than an hundred miles broad, and appear, as already said, like an arm of the sea; such are the Oronoke, the river Plate, and the Amazon.

The mountains of North America are inferior to the Andes; but the rivers in the northern division are nearly equal with those of the south. The Mississippi, the Oregon or Columbia, the Bourbon or M'Kenzie's, and the St. Lawrence, pursue each a different direction, and reach their several oceans at the distance of 2000 miles. But the chain of lakes in North America, to which the river St. Lawrence forms an outlet, has no parallel in any other part of the world. The principal of these, are Ontario, Erie, Michigan, Huron and Superior. We may calculate, that, at some future period, the country about those lakes will be settled, and they will afford a vast inland navigation of incalculable importance to that country.

In addition to the rich and productive soil of South America, the bowels of the earth are stored with precious metals. Mexico and Peru abound with the richest mines in the world. This, at first, rendered South America the most dazzling object in view of the powers of Europe; but the deep forests and more hardy climate of North America promised wealth only to persevering labor and industry. In the event, the precious metals of the *South* have ruined the most powerful nation in Europe, while the labor and industry of the *North*, have given existence to a new empire, which will shortly be able to set all Europe at defiance.

In glancing an eye at the natural advantages of the new continent, we must not forget to add to the considerations of soil and climate, an immense sea coast, numerous fine harbors, and an unequalled inland navigation, by means of rivers, bays and lakes, comprising all the advantages of commerce.

Such was the new world, discovered by Columbus. This continent, containing a third of the dry land of the globe, lies opposite, and forms a balance or counterpoise, to the old world. This great continent, when discovered by Columbus, was found inhabited by savages. The nations of Mexico and Peru were the most improved of them all. The savages, in most parts of America, were thinly scattered over a wide country.

From whom, these nations descended, or whence they came, is uncertain. Nothing conclusive is discovered on that head, from their oral histories and traditions—from their language, manners, or customs, nor from any monument, found in all the continent, or any other part of the world. Dr. Robertson has conjectured on this subject with his usual elegance of style and manner; and, with uncommon force of imagination, has constructed a bridge from Africa to South America, on which they might pass; which bridge has sunk by earthquakes, or worn away by the attrition of the gulf stream. In fact, it is of little consequence, from whom the natives of this country were descended; but, were it otherwise, conjectures were vain and groundless. By reason of a total want of evidence, the subject rests in darkness.

The new world opened an inviting prospect from afar to myriads in Europe. They had no scruples of conscience in seizing upon a country inhabited by savages, whom they considered as having no more right to the land, than the beasts of the forest. Thousands flocked hither to escape poverty, oppression and the various troubles of Europe. The Spaniards spread southwardly, allured by the rich mines of Peru and Mexico. They thought, that mere land, especially a wilderness, was scarcely worthy of occupancy. We shall be very short on their history. Under the command of Cortez, the Pizarros and sundry other adventurers of most execrable memory, they subdued the northern parts of South America. They slaughtered several millions of the harmless natives of those countries; and exhibited a scene of horror and cruelty, which was doubtless never

equalled on the old continent—showing themselves, on all occasions, to be a race of monsters in human shape, void of humanity, mercy, truth and honor.

Their wickedness was too outrageous for the earth to bear, or the heavens to behold without a frown. The hand of Providence has pursued them with various curses, and has smitten Spain itself with a consumption, and an irrecoverable decline, for allowing, indeed, for perpetrating, such horrible and enormous cruelties. The Spaniards soon acquired immense treasures of gold and silver, and became utterly paralyzed by wealth. They were wealthy only to benefit their more industrious neighbors; and they exhibit a striking proof, that exorbitant wealth and luxury are but feeble bulwarks to national prosperity. Spain, in the early part of the 16th century, was the most powerful nation in Europe. Without any revolution, or any considerable misfortunes by war, or otherwise, she has gradually become weak, and is scarcely an independent nation. Her provinces in South America are still weaker. They are not known, but as wide regions inhabited by an ignorant, or by a savage race of people, as incapable of enjoying, as of obtaining independence.

[The above picture of South America, is perhaps too deeply shaded. Many of those oppressed and degraded people have dared to rebel against their tyrants—have shaken off the yoke and established their independence. It is confidently believed, that the time is not far distant, when every state in that vast country may be hailed by us, as a sister republic.]

North America was destined to happier scenes of action. A tract of country extending from Canada to Florida, and from the Atlantic to the river Mississippi, was located, and its eastern borders were settled, chiefly by emigrants from the British kingdom. Though they came hither with raised expectations of the country, yet they found the most enterprising industry necessary to level the tall forest and subdue the face of the earth. The grand object of their wishes invited them to enjoyment through perils and laborious exertion. They ascended the hills of difficulty with resolution, and despaired not of the bright summit, though at a distance and elevated. They pushed the business of agriculture with nerve, resolution, and unexampled success. The forest fell before them; the savages were awed to respectful peace; the country soon began to smile, and promised what a more distant day would bring forth.

If language fail in describing the bravery, energy, economy and perseverance of our fathers, it will find it no easier to picture the industry, virtue, prudence, and fortitude of our mothers. They reared and instructed a race of heroes, who were cherished on bosoms, expanded with every sentiment of truth, and warmed and enlivened by every noble and virtuous impulse. They could not but be great. Though not possessed with that artificial gloss, which is derived from the smooth manners and gaudy splendor of courts, they had that strength, firmness, expansion and dignity of soul, which virtue inspires, and which a consciousness of right can diffuse, in a world of freedom, peace and plenty.

The first settlers of the United States, were daily strengthened by new adventurers, who fled, some indeed from justice, but far more generally, from the pride and cruelty of oppressive power. In about a century and a half, the colonies were increased to thirteen in number, were spread far back from the sea, and had made considerable advances in commerce and manufactures. A hardy race had sprung up, who could not be trampled on with impunity; men jealous of their rights, industrious in peace, and undaunted in war.

At that time, an unaccountable *mania* seized the British government, to make exactions on our country, which were equally impolitic and unjust. From those exorbitant demands, our intrepid countrymen turned with various sentiments of disgust, aversion and abhorrence; and not without emotions of concern and sorrow, at the idea of a rupture with our mother country. Our ideas of British aggressions might be suspected of prejudiced and partial views, were they not corroborated by many of their own people. The ablest statesmen and profoundest politicians in Great Britain, condemned the measures of their government, and foretold the consequences. Violent disputes ensued; they were propagated through the British dominions; and our cause was patronized by a great and respectable minority. Their ablest counsellors were divided; and a subject of such magnitude called forth the powers of reasoning, and roused the spirit of eloquence, which had slumbered, since the times of Cicero.

But the British forum was not the only theatre of eloquence. In our infant country, her powerful voice was heard. Men from the plough, from the shop, and the

counter, for a moment, forsook their humble pursuits, and, obedient to the distressful call of their country became, according to their abilities, soldiers or statesmen.

After the perturbation and alarm of the first shock was a little passed, it was perceived, that the colonies would all unite, and pledge themselves for mutual support and defence. A solemn instrument was drawn up, which declared, in strong but temperate language, the independence and sovereignty of the United States, and was published on the fourth day of July, 1776—a day ever memorable to the people of this happy country.

The British government, than which no one was ever more disappointed or deceived, soon perceived, that the contest was to be of a serious and eventful nature. The scene of action was distant; the necessary preparations expensive; every inch of ground was to be disputed; the contest was to be sharp and bloody, and the issue doubtful. Impelled by interest, indignity and pride of character, Great Britain found it necessary to call forth her utmost resources. She therefore sent fleets and armies, and commenced a threefold attack. She assailed our country at each extreme, and in the centre; while, at the same time, she armed and impelled numerous nations of savages to fall upon us in the rear. With one army, she descended upon our northern states from Canada; with another, she ravaged the southern states; with a third she struck at our centre from New-York, the Hudson, and Delaware, while our extensive sea coast was perpetually harassed by her victorious fleets; and our western frontier, from Canada to Georgia, was exposed to the inroads of myriads of fierce and hostile savages.

Divine Providence determined we should surmount all the dangers and difficulties of so formidable a war, and establish our independence. A man was raised up, to command our armies, who was able to make the best of our slender resources, and to supply their defect by his own immense and astonishing genius. GEORGE WASHINGTON, if any mortal man ever merited the appellation of *Father of his country*, surely merits that name. He, by the united voice of his country, led her armies. He trained them to the art of war. He fixed their wavering resolution; confirmed their dubious virtue; inspired them with invincible courage; taught them to be cool, intrepid, and firm in every danger—to exercise the utmost fortitude in adversity,

and to be temperate, magnanimous, mild, and merciful in the moment of victory.

Washington will not suffer in comparison with any commander, ancient or modern. If compared with Cyrus, the armies of the latter were numerous, and his enemies weak. It was not so with Washington. If compared with Alexander, the army of the latter had been trained by Philip, one of the greatest men of antiquity; and the Persians were utterly drowned in luxury. If compared with Hannibal, the latter had, perhaps, the bravest, most experienced, most impetuous and warlike troops upon earth. How far was that from being the case with Washington. If compared with Julius Cesar, the latter had the ablest, best appointed, and most effective army, which the resources of Rome ever sent into the field. If compared with any of the greatest generals of modern times, as Gustavus Adolphus, Eugene, Marlborough, Conde, Tilly, Turenne, or even Bonaparte, their resources will be found to have been, generally, incomparably superior to his, and the difficulties they encountered, as much inferior. Their armies were numerous; trained in the storms of war; hardened by marches, sieges and battles; made crafty by ambuscades, wiles and stratagems; and enabled, by long experience, to face every form of danger without fear. Their armies in general, were amply fed, clothed and paid, and were completely officered by men thoroughly educated in military tactics.

However fruitful the American lands, and how numerous soever the natural advantages of the country might be, they were of a nature, which required the exertions of all the people, to realize and call them forth; and in proportion to the indispensable labors of the country, there was certainly an extreme paucity of hands to carry them on; few, therefore, could be well spared to bear arms. Our armies, which were small, were at first composed of men drawn from the bosom of a peaceful land. They were utterly unacquainted with war; yet by hard labor, they had been rendered robust, vigorous, active and capable of fatigue. It is not unworthy of notice and of admiration, that men, habituated to freedom bordering on licentiousness, tenacious of their rights, and jealous of their honor even to a punctilio, should so readily submit to military subordination and martial law. They did, however, yield to steady discipline; and, in a short time, were formed into a regular army.

But in a scene of action so immense, in a conflict so varied, so long and severe, the United States were involved in difficulties extreme and dreadful. If we looked northward, we beheld an army ready to rush like a torrent upon us, and sweep our country with the besom of destruction. At the southward, our most fertile lands were desolated by another still more formidable. Swarms of angry savages continually hovered upon our frontiers, where many of our unhappy citizens were destined to perish with the tomahawk in a midnight surprise; and about our sea coasts and harbors, the triumphant flag of our enemies was perpetually displayed. Agriculture failed for want of hands; a scarcity of provisions ensued; there was a cessation of commerce, and but little money; our army poorly paid, and miserably clad, was threatened by famine, or with the dire alternative of plundering the country, they were raised to defend—a country, already made naked by exactions disproportioned to its resources.

At this eventful period, the column of our independence, so lately reared, seemed to totter; but it was sustained by a few hands, which Omnipotence had rendered strong for that purpose. A few hands indeed! for how unstable is popular opinion! how varying, how uncertain, how inconsistent, how fickle, how unsubstantial is a public passion! No people on earth, (for it shall be spoken,) no people on earth were ever more firm, more enlightened, more consistent, than the people of the United States, as a body. But, alas! what could they do? What could they think? The people at large always judge acutely of present dangers. They feel the shock of calamities and the stings of misfortune. When their fathers, their sons, and their brothers fall in battle, the sources of their grief are as wide, and their tears flow as freely, as those of the statesman and hero. It was so with our people. Their souls were made up of courage and fortitude; but their information was limited; their views of the ground, imperfect; the first paroxysms of enthusiastic zeal were past; and the flame of general patriotism was a little checked by chilling disasters.

It was a time of affliction, of grief, of terror and alarm. Fear triumphed over hope, while the balance trembled in suspense, the turn of which was to fix the fate of our country. In an hour so dark and trying, while huge calamities hung over us, we were in danger of being ensnared by the

artful wiles of an exasperated foe. The British government issued a proclamation of grace, a general amnesty, from which none were excluded, but JOHN HANCOCK and SAMUEL ADAMS, who were justly regarded as among the primary moving powers of the revolution. Every man in our country looked round for encouragement, support and advice. The eyes of the people were turned on those men most remarkable for sagacity, wisdom and integrity; and all eyes were directed, with extreme solicitude, to the general Congress. That honorable body, at that day, was composed of men, who could not be awed into submission by the voice of majesty, nor the portentous menaces of sovereign power. They dared to brave the gathering tempest; and, at any hazard, were willing to rise or fall with the revolution. They could not be ensnared by fallacious hopes, nor beguiled by unmeaning professions and promises, however specious and dazzling. They listened to the British proclamation, as to the voice of a syren; and they could not think of purchasing peace, with the blood of their noblest patriots.

It is not easy to conceive the embarrassments, the dangers and perils, which attended that Congress, which first embarked our political vessel on an ocean so stormy. They were obliged to brave the most threatening aspects of fortune—to stand foremost in a doubtful contest. They were too well read in the history of nations not to know, to what inevitable ruin they were exposed, should the revolution fail. From the same sources, they knew but too well, the fickleness and caprice of the public mind. They saw and felt the miseries of their country already come, and dreaded others, still impending.

While the people, with palpitating fears, looked up to their leaders; while they, from New-Hampshire to Georgia, in serious and painful anxiety, placed their hopes in the wisdom of that illustrious band of patriots, assembled in Congress; that body looked to one man, as to a common father. Their eyes were all fixed on WASHINGTON. The British legions, who at first affected to despise, were soon taught to dread, that illustrious leader; and the people, which he was called to defend, soon perceived, that their confidence was not misplaced. They saw, that he bore not the sword in vain.

There were several events, which proved favorable to the revolution. At first, many men of enlightened minds

were in doubt whether the proper time to separate from Great Britain was come. Others still felt the force of habitual respect for a nation, justly styled our *mother-country*. Some indeed, were from education, from theory and speculation, strongly attached to the ancient government of the country, and dreaded the violent paroxysms of rage, of zeal, and of party views, to which we must be exposed in dissolving connection with Britain, reverting into a state of native anarchy, and thence rising to order under a new, an untried form of government, to be made, to be organized, and set in motion, by ourselves.

Many, and with great justness, dreaded a series of bloody revolutions, and after all, a disgraceful return to the goal, from whence we started. They expected we should be humbled, scourged, desolated and ruined in war, and then return to our allegiance with shame, disgrace and eternal contempt, and submit voluntarily, to have our fetters rivetted, and our destiny fixed in servitude. For an unsuccessful attempt at liberty, may always be regarded, as a deadly plunge into hopeless slavery.

Several persons of these descriptions, were scattered through the continent. But, fortunately for us, their numbers soon greatly diminished. When they saw the revolution had actually taken form, and was likely, at least, to be strenuously contested—when they saw the thirteen states, as a body, combined, and solemnly pledged to defend the cause, they generally yielded the point, and even determined to rise or fall with their brethren.

In enumerating the causes, which operated in our favor, we cannot avoid noticing the unskilful measures employed by the British government, to bring us back to our duty from a state of revolt. A medium between two extremes is often the proper course to pursue; but to them, it was certainly most improper, as it proved most unsuccessful. They should have been either far more energetic, more decisive, and more severe, or far more lenient, mild and gentle. In either of those extremes, there was a possibility of their succeeding. They, in the first instance, were certainly the aggressors. Their ablest politicians and firmest patriots confessed it, and urged it as a reason, why they should seek to restore union and tranquillity by concession, indulgence and lenity. But that was too mortifying to their pride and ambition. They disdained the idea of the slightest concession, and determined to do all by

austerity, menace and compulsion. They should have organized a course of measures, suitable to the complexion of a policy so self-sufficient, and of an attitude so haughty and commanding.

But they vainly imagined, that a regular army of three or four thousand men would directly awe us into submission. They tried it, and found out their mistake, when, by a strong concurrence of events, it was too late. The firmness, union and bravery of the people of the United States, saved them from falling an immediate prey to their enemies; but it is doubtful, to what extent their calamities would have risen, but for the operation of two powerful causes, which cannot be passed unnoticed.

The aid of France was timely, and was necessary. We shall not meddle with the question of equity. We shall not say, nor is it in the power of any being, but of HIM who views actions in all their relations, and traces all effects to their causes, to say, how far their interference was conformable to the eternal rules of justice. As things have turned, our revolution cannot be considered, but as a source of misfortune to them.* The enmity, jealousy, and rivalry subsisting between France and England, are things well known to most persons who have eyes and ears. Their mutual animosities have embroiled Europe for the last five hundred years.

The rapid growth and vast resources of the British colonies, rendered their separation from England, of all possible objects, the most ardently to be wished, and the most strenuously to be sought for by France. In espousing our cause they aimed a deadly blow at Great Britain. It is not, therefore, strange, that they should entertain so strong a sense of the *justice* of our cause, when our success was likely to diminish the resources of their most formidable rival, and pluck one of the brightest gems from the British crown. With the most cordial *fellow-feeling*, therefore, they espoused our contest and made it their own. Nor should the pen of the historian be so ungrateful as

* There is no reason to doubt that the American revolution did produce or accelerate that of France. It is still more evident, that the French revolution was fraught with mischief and productive of woes unnumbered to those who were actors and sufferers in the amazing tragedy. But whether it will ultimately prove an evil to the French, can be known only by "HIM, who views actions in all their relations" and consequences.—*Ed.*

not to "speak well of the bridge that carried us safe over."

A war between France and England divided the attention and resources of the latter, and rendered the reduction of the colonies the least article in their grand dispute; which extended itself into both hemispheres, and ultimately awakened all the energies of the conflicting powers. By this, we were certainly benefitted, and probably saved from subjugation.

But all the aid we received, or could have received from France, would have been unavailing, had not Providence raised up a man, to head our armies, every way fitted for that important trust. When we say *every way fitted*, we mean much more, than is commonly intended by that expression. He seemed to be in all respects, exactly such a personage, as was indispensable to our cause.

It is remarkable, that in the course of the war, two entire British armies were captured. The capture of Burgoyne revived the spirits, and animated the hopes, of the Americans, and seemed to put a new face upon affairs; and that of Cornwallis terminated the war. The reduction of the states from the time of that event, was considered as impracticable.

If the union of the states, in the revolutionary war may be considered as an evidence of their wisdom, foresight and patriotism, their union in a matter of equal magnitude, since that time, is no less remarkable. When the first articles of confederation, established as the basis of our political fabric, were found inadequate to that grand purpose, the states, a second time, cordially united in a plan of government, recommended to them by a general convention. This second union, especially, disappointed the hopes of the enemies of our country, and falsified their numerous and vehement predictions, that we should disagree, dispute, quarrel, and dash in pieces on that dangerous rock.

The course of events, since the adoption of the federal government, is well known. Regarding our entire history—our progress, in our colonial relation to Britain; our emancipation from foreign domination; our union in two grand movements, so improbable, and yet so necessary; in short, regarding our past and present state and our future prospects, we must be pronounced a fortunate and happy people.

In giving a succinct view of the present state of the new world, we shall consider it under four divisions, viz. British and Spanish America, the United States and the savage nations.

1. What was designed to be noticed of Spanish America has been nearly anticipated. The immense provinces they possess in the new world, lie generally in the wilderness-state. Their application to agriculture in those extensive countries, has been trifling, and the people who claim the civilized rank are mere Spaniards, and that of the lowest grade. Their population is inconsiderable, when compared with the lands they claim. They make no figure in war; they are nothing in the arts and sciences; they can scarcely boast of one illustrious character; and there seems not to exist one single fact, trait, or circumstance, to veil the sterility of their mental soil—the total want of intellectual culture, or to enlighten and adorn the pages of their history. On the whole, it shall suffice to close our observations on Spanish America, by noting to the reader, that the splendid and eloquent pen of Dr. Robertson has given an ideal importance to the history of that country, which makes it abundantly worth reading, truth and facts being entirely out of the question. To his history, therefore, the reader is referred.

2. The possessions of Great Britain in North America, commonly called British America, are comprised in a section of that continent north of the United States, and commence about the 44th degree of north latitude. They are bounded, east, by the Atlantic ocean—south, partly by the United States, and they seem to run west and north indefinitely, or till met by circumjacent seas. Neither the Canadas, Nova-Scotia, nor New-Brunswick, can very soon become objects of very great importance. Regions so remote, so cold and inhospitable, can never awaken the spirit of emigration, nor will the natural progress of population be very rapid. Perhaps, should the world remain in its present form for twenty or thirty centuries, those provinces may become populous, in some measure, by means of a change of climate. It is a remarkable fact, that the climate in the New-England States, has been observed to change materially within the last 50, nay 30 years. As the forests are cleared away, and the face of the ground laid open, should the climate continue to change, the two continents may at length become upon a par as to temperature.

The revenue, which Great Britain derives from her colonies, is of some value ; but the state of those colonies, generally speaking, is barbarous, wild and uninviting, in the extreme. Great countries, a thin population sprinkled over their margin, boundless forests, long and dreary winters, a frightful solitude, howling savages, and the remote seclusion from the world of civility and order, are objects which appal all but the robust and hardy children of misfortune. Some, indeed, will go thither to make, and some to repair, their ruined fortunes ; some to repair, and some to form, their characters.

What corner of the earth is so remote—what region so forbidding, that the sons of *Mammon* will not visit it, in quest of gain ? What ocean, strait or river, will they not explore, or what form of danger will they not encounter, what death will they not despise, when the hope of gain is thrown into the adverse scale ? They will dive into the bowels of the earth ; they will traverse the wildest, the most dangerous deserts ; they will encounter the eternal frosts of either pole, and laugh at the storms of the wintry seas, or the burning showers of equatorial sand, when allured by wealth.

From the nature of the provinces in British America, the increase of their population must be very slow. They must long remain feeble ; and of course, so long they must be subject to, and dependent on, their mother country ; nor is it likely, they will ever form an independent government. Should they revolt from Britain, they would naturally fall to their far more powerful and prosperous neighbours, the United States ; an event, however, as undesirable to us, as it would be to Great Britain. Let us, in all conscience, be satisfied with the territories we have, at least for the ensuing five hundred years. When we shall have fully experienced the arduous difficulties of supporting a frame of government over a territory twelve hundred miles square, we shall neither wish to purchase, to conquer, nor to receive, even by free donation, an additional territory.*

At the close of the revolutionary war, many of the loyalists, in the true spirit of national gratitude, were rewarded for their fidelity to Britain, with possessions in Nova-Scotia.

* There is some reason to hope, that the author's views upon this subject, will be found incorrect.—*Ed.*

After a short residence in that dreary country, they found themselves exiled from a happier world. They grew discontented; and numbers of them returned to the United States, and were glad to take up their abode among a people, upon whom they had, sometime before, turned their backs with utter contempt and disgust. Whoever is acquainted with the course of human affairs, knows, that it is as dangerous to oppose a prosperous revolution, as it is to join one, which fails.

3. We come now to give a sketch of the present state of the United States.

NAME.

The new world has been peculiarly unfortunate, in all respects, as it relates to a name. In the first place, it should have been called *Columbia*; a name, which yields to none in point of dignity, harmony, and convenience. The word *Columbia*, in its very sound, is grave and proper for history; it is dignified and adapted to oratory; full, smooth and harmonious, and is equally good in poetry. In its very orthography it is neat, convenient and agreeable, neither too short nor too long.

That the new continent should be called *America*, after Americus Vesputius, was the greatest act of folly, caprice, cruelty and injustice of the kind, that ever mankind were guilty of. To deprive Columbus of that honor, which he so justly merited; to bestow it upon one, who had no title to it; to violate, at once, justice, propriety and harmony; to reject a name, which that of no nation, in point of sound, ever excelled, and substitute in its place, one which sounds but meanly in prose, and is intolerable in poetry, is an act of caprice and folly, which can scarcely be thought of with any degree of patience. It will forever be regretted by every reflecting mind. Indeed, the name of *Columbia* will always reign in poetry, and in the pathetic and sublime of prose. It will probably gain ground upon its spurious, upstart rival, and it may, in a good measure, supplant it.

Since the continent has acquired another name, it would have been highly proper to have called the United States *Columbia*. Though but a part of the continent, yet it is a part respectable for size, and probably will, for ages, remain the most important part of the new world.

Two favorable moments have past, in either of which, and especially the latter, it is believed, that a name might have been given to the United States. Accompanying the declaration of independence, or the promulgation of the federal constitution, an appropriate name would probably have taken with the people, and have gone down, firmly fixed to posterity. When another time equally favorable will arrive, is uncertain. There are serious and urgent reasons, why the United States should have a name. Whether that name shall be proposed by Congress, by the universities, by the legislatures of several states, or by individuals, is of little consequence, provided the name is a good one, and meets with acceptance. The power of determining upon a name might be vested in the heads of the several universities; or it might be done by the concurrence of the majority of the several states by their legislatures, or by the nomination of individuals.*

AGRICULTURE.

Agriculture forms the most important interest of the United States. The people may with propriety be called an agricultural people. Their natural advantages, for that object, certainly equal those of any nation on earth. Their territories include the best climates in the temperate zone; and, since the addition of Louisiana, they extend, perhaps, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. But if we consider the lakes, the Atlantic and the Mississippi as our boundaries, there is a vast country of arable land, including every possible variety of excellence, with few wastes or barrens. We seem to fall behind no quarter of the globe, but in the precious metals and jewels. Our lands equal those of Egypt, Assyria, India, or China.†

The people of the United States seem well fitted to avail themselves of these advantages. They are generally strong, robust, active and ambitious, and are actuated by a greater desire to acquire a neat, competent, independent style of living, than any other nation ever known. They shrink from no labors. Hardships, enterprises, fatigues

* What reasonable objection could there be to calling this country FREDONIA? a name proposed by one of the greatest scholars in the United States, who in *Europe*, is considered as the luminary of this country.

† It is probable the fertility of our soil is here overrated.—*Ed.*

and even dangers, are encountered with pleasure, in view of that honorable independence, which is fairly within their reach. They grasp after it with eagerness; pursue it with diligence; and they seldom fail of being successful.

The domestic history of a young farmer, in this country, cannot be read, but with a kind of romantic pleasure; such as poetic fancy feels in reading the fictions of the golden age. He early unites his fortune and destiny with those of some female, whose virtue, kindness, prudence and industry, seldom fail to dignify the raptures of passion into the calm sunshine of lasting benevolence and esteem. They have no property. The new countries invite them, and they go thither, animated with the most laudable and sanguine expectations. By a few years' labor, which they pass through with resolution, cheerfulness and hope, they acquire a competence, frequently wealth. Their numerous offspring are trained up in habits of industry, economy and virtue. They settle around their parents, form a little society of most endearing friendship, and living in love and peace, they are prosperous and happy.

This country has populated with unexampled rapidity.* Since the close of the revolutionary war, the western line of settlements, extending from Canada to Georgia, has been moving westward, along the course of the great rivers, which lead to the Mississippi, and in the bosom of those rich countries, where the produce of the earth rewards the laborer a hundred fold.

While every art and science are cultivated, that of agriculture is by no means neglected. The different modes of subduing and cultivating the earth have, latterly especially, engaged the attention of men of opulence and leisure. Agricultural societies have been formed; valuable essays and publications have been diffused over our country; and the most important improvements have been brought from Europe, and practised with success. Too much praise can scarcely be bestowed on those enterprising men, who have published and diffused several important dictionaries of arts and sciences, particularly the Encyclopedia. From them, the most useful information has been and may still be drawn.

In the agriculture of this country, many improvements are still to be made. We cannot but observe, with regret

* The increase of the Israelites in Egypt was considerably more rapid.—*Ed.*

and concern, that many farmers entirely overlook the grand object, where their true interest centers. They blindly follow the footsteps of their fathers and ancestors, without deriving any benefit from reflection, inquiry, advice, or experiment. They never once dream, that husbandry, of all arts, is the most improvable.

In our country, there is a scarcity of hands to labor. Whatever improvement, therefore, diminishes the quantity, or increases the effects, of hard labor, must be valuable. It is a prevailing fault, that our farmers, in but few instances, consult the nature and character of their farms, and regulate their tillage accordingly. They do not consider, whether they are more proper for grazing or for grain. They are determined entirely by accident or tradition, in the choice of the grasses or the grain they will raise. They pay little attention to the selection of seed; an article of prime importance in every species of crop. They are equally negligent of the breed of their cattle, horses and especially of their sheep.* Many things of this nature, in the farmer's art, may be attended to with little expense. Attention only seems to be requisite, and of that kind, which might serve as matter of amusement.

The greatest general fault, observable in the agriculture of the United States, is, what might be expected from the fewness of laborers, an imperfect, slight and feeble tillage of too much land. It might, in a measure, be remedied. If a much greater attention were paid to the cultivation of various species of grass, and to the rearing of stock, far less labor would be requisite in tillage; while at the same time, the farmer's revenue would be increased; and a smaller portion of his plough lands being put into a much higher state of cultivation, would yield him a much greater quantity of grain. Where he now obtains two hundred bushels of grain from twenty acres, he might then obtain the same quantity from five acres.

The agricultural interest of this country is endangered from another quarter. An immense influx of foreign luxuries, and a taste for high living, seriously threaten the industry and habits of labor, prevalent among the middle classes of people. It may be said, indeed, that to purchase these luxuries, farmers must be industrious. It is a far

* It is confidently hoped, that these remarks are now applicable to very few, if any, of our farmers.—*Ed.*

more practical truth, that to use them does by no means consist with economy, and is absolutely incompatible with industry.

The middle and northern states, especially the latter, are cultivated by the very people, who own the lands. Each farmer does his own labor. He not only superintends, but leads in his fields, and does much of the work with his own hands. During the intervals of labor, he reads the newspapers, talks politics, and becomes, at least in his own estimation, a profound statesman. It must, indeed, be confessed, that no other class of laborers on earth are so well informed, as the New-England farmers. They are generally well versed in the circulating politics of the day; most of them having newspapers enough in their houses to paper all their rooms.

COMMERCE.

The commerce of the United States is both great and growing. Their advantages in this respect are not inferior to those of agriculture. A vast sea coast, indented with almost innumerable good harbors; a multitude of navigable rivers; a country abounding with articles of high demand for exportation, with every thing necessary to ship-building; and as bold, hardy and enterprising a race of men, as ever braved the dangers of the sea; all bid fair for commerce. We have already become one of the most commercial people in the world, and it is thought, second to none, but Great Britain.

Our advantages for commerce arise from the following considerations;

1. An extensive sea coast. From Maine to Georgia, inclusive, considering the windings of the coast, the distance is more than 2,000 miles. This whole coast is indented with good harbors. Many of them have already become places of considerable trade; and many more are susceptible of the same advantages, and must rapidly rise into consideration, through the enterprise of the adjacent country. Some of our sea-ports have already become great. There is probably no city on the globe, which is now advancing with such rapid strides towards commercial greatness, as New-York. She is fast rising into the first rank of cities. Situated at the mouth of a noble and beautiful river, down whose gentle current, the wealth of an opulent country is

wafted by nearly two thousand vessels, she trades with all parts of the world, and her ships are seen in every ocean.

2. The United States are prodigiously intersected and almost insulated by large rivers. By a few carrying places, which, at no very distant day, will probably be converted into canals, our whole country may be actually divided into several large islands. Those immense rivers, whose waters fall into the bay of Mexico, in some of their branches, extend nearly to the great lakes, or almost interlock with streams which fall into those lakes. One can scarcely glance an eye over the map of this country, without being surprised at the vast extent and facility of our inland navigation.

This subject will attract more attention, and excite more admiration progressively, as the body of population shall move westward, and those forests, which now shade one of the most fertile countries in the world, shall be cleared away.

3. The third remarkable trait favorable to our commerce, is a vast profusion of materials for ship-building. Masts, timber, plank, iron, flax, hemp, pitch, &c. are easily obtained in all parts, if not of the very best kind, yet of a quality fit for use. In proof of this, our trading vessels are yearly increasing in a geometrical ratio. It is not to be concealed, indeed, that we import some of these materials from other countries; which only shows that we have additional resources.

4. The produce of our country forms the real basis of our commerce. To enumerate the articles we export, and those which we receive from other nations in return, would fill many pages. The secret springs of commercial enterprise, open an immense field of speculation. Our ports are visited by the ships of numerous nations, who find also their own interest in our trade.

5. The character and temper of the inhabitants are well adapted to commerce. No people are more eager in pursuit of wealth. In this, their favorite object, they are often led too far. It is thought by some, to be the foible in their national character.

LITERATURE,

It is hoped that the foreigner, into whose hands this book may fall, will not too hastily judge, that the author is

attempting to eulogize his native country. We are willing he should set down liberally to the account of national attachment; but it is our professed intention to state simple facts.

Regarding the literature of the United States, as one entire object, judging impartially, and deciding with severity, we are compelled to say, that it is on a footing not only favorable, but highly flattering to the present and rising generation. We shall here repeat an observation which has indeed often been made, but which, if true, cannot be made too often, nor dwelt upon too long. It is, that the lower class of people in this country are better informed, than the same class in any other country in the world. This observation applies with peculiar force to the northern states.

That can be said of the United States, which cannot with justice be said of any other nation, viz. that all our citizens are, by some means or other, placed within the reach of a good education. Those whose advantages are worst, can scarcely be excepted from this remark, and, in general, it applies with certainty and strength.

In some of the states, schools are made a public expense, and are supported by a regular assessment and tax. Every man pays, not according to the number of his children, but according to the value of his estate. It is greatly to be lamented, that this is not universally the case. It can be viewed in no other light, than as the firmest pillar of national liberty, prosperity and happiness. The ignorance of the common people is the certain prelude to their poverty and slavery.

The surprising difference between the people of those states, who have long felt the benign influence of these institutions, and others, speaks more loudly on this subject, and paints it in stronger colors, than are within the reach of tongues or pencils. But even in those states, where education is not made the object of legislative provision, industry and frugality can seldom fail to procure the means of acquiring a competent education. Where those means appear to be most wanting, that defect is obviously the result of criminal negligence in the people; and can neither be ascribed, in any degree, to their necessary penury, nor the spirit of their government.

Throughout every part of the United States, there are, or may be, and probably will be, such schools, as will lay a

broad and respectable foundation for the instruction of the great body of the people. How happy would it be, if every state would establish schools by law! In many instances, it would rescue the poor from ignorance, and it would ultimately free the country itself from those consequences, which every virtuous republican ought most to dread and deplore.

A material defect in our present system of education, is observable in the neglect, which too many people are guilty of, relative to the qualification of the teachers of their schools. Allured merely by cheapness, they often send their children to be taught by persons utterly unqualified. They thus repose the most important trust in persons destitute of every degree of merit. If in any case, it is necessary to employ a workman, who is master of his business, it is certainly so in the case of a school-master; and if moral qualifications are requisite in any profession, they should not be neglected in his, to whom is entrusted the immensely important task of forming the minds of our children.

Academical schools have of late years, become numerous, and their number is still rapidly increasing. They form an intermediate grade between colleges and common schools. From them, great benefit results. In every neighborhood, where they are found, a number of youth are either fitted for college, or so well educated, as to enter, with advantage, upon the mechanical or commercial professions.

In the United States, there are several respectable and flourishing colleges, in which young men are carried through the various branches of a polite and liberal education. The most important of these, at present, are *Cambridge, Yale* and *Princeton*. Cambridge college is the best endowed of any in the United States.

The great increase of books in the United States, may be considered both as the cause and the effect of increasing taste and information. Books have multiplied, both from original production and importation, far more rapidly, than people to read them. Still, however, regarding the whole mass of population, books cannot be said to be very plenty in this country. Although we have many men of learning, yet eminent erudition is rarely acquired, for want of access to proper sources of knowledge in this infant country; and for want of those liberal fortunes, which, in Europe, are sometimes lavished to foster genius.

The encouragement of genius, by opulent men, is a thing scarcely known in our country, where *to get what you can, and keep what you have got*, is a fundamental maxim with all classes. Nor is it very strange, that this maxim is so steadily pursued, since it is regarded as the only clue to wealth, and since to this, most of the best estates owe their existence.

It must be confessed, that our country has not, as yet, produced many literary works of superior merit. We have few men of leisure, or of very eminent learning. But if compared with the nations of Europe, as to numbers, resources and duration, we shall not be found deficient. Indeed, the inference, from such a comparison, will be found highly in our favor. To suppose ourselves equal to the august *litterati* of Europe, or nearly equal to them, with our inferior advantages, would be to set our powers of genius far above theirs.

The United States can, as yet, boast of no such prodigies in literature. But we have men whose attainments in the various branches of learning are decent and respectable; and whose names will be transmitted with honor to posterity. We are doubtless warranted in the assertion, that no country or nation, in so short a time, has exhibited more numerous specimens of literary merit.

The numerous periodical papers, of late years established in this country, have had a share of influence in promoting knowledge. It is impossible to form any conjecture concerning the number of magazines, and newspapers now daily published. Several of them are of a moral and religious nature—are ably conducted, and have unquestionably been attended with very beneficial effects.

It must be confessed, that newspapers are not always to be regarded, as the purest channels of political intelligence. They are too generally devoted to party, and of course to private views. And since this article is before us, we cannot omit the occasion of observing, that several of our public papers have been conducted, not by party men, but by foreigners, who, could it be presumed that they understand the nature of our government and civil policy, are utterly incapable of feeling any regard for either. They are in quest of wealth and fame, and are decidedly of that description of fortune-hunters, who feel no delicacy in the choice of expedients to accomplish their purposes. That they pursue the course they do, is no matter of surprise,

since they act from temper, habit and necessity. But it is matter of serious regret, that the people of our country should give them countenance—be led by them, and look up to them as their political guides.*

We repeat the observation, that those foreigners, generally speaking, who have carried on several public papers, and have made much editorial noise in our country, are, by no means, to be considered as party men. They have, indeed, been the tools of party; but they are of any side, which suits their imperious necessities. They are any thing—they are every thing—they are NOTHING.

We hope, we shall not be thought impertinent, when we ask, What would be the fate of an American printer who should go into London, or Paris, and set up his political manufactory upon as large a scale, as those foreigners do among us? He should tell them plainly what his designs were; for these fellows are seldom guilty of taciturnity. He should, in fact, begin thus—"Gentlemen, you are an unhappy people. You have great advantages; but do not know how to improve them. I have come among you, to be your savior—to diffuse life through your benighted regions. In the first place, I shall correct the abuses of your government, and reduce all things to the uniform rule of justice; I shall change your ministry, which ought not to remain any longer in the hands of such men as now are in power; and I shall put up certain persons who will do you ample justice. As I have leisure, I shall look into all your departments of state, and I pledge myself I will never cease, till I have *regulated your nation.*"

A style like this, from a foreigner, would not pass current in any nation, but our own. We have heard it, shall I say, with patience?—with applause—with gratitude. Many of our simple citizens, and simple indeed they must be, have looked up to those loquacious parrots, who, to be sure, recite their lessons with wonderful volubility, and have been ready to exclaim, *It is the voice of God, and not of man.*

They have affected to be at the head of the great parties, into which our country has been unhappily divided. They have dealt abundantly with *great men* and *great things*—have, in short, affected to be the scourgers and purifiers of the times. The fact is, their presses have been the com-

* It is hoped that our country has greatly improved in this respect since these remarks were written.—*Ed.*

mon sewers of the times, from which have issued streams of filth and falsehood, sufficient to overwhelm and drown every thing but immortal truth and virtue.

NATIONAL ACADEMY.

The existence of an institution of learning, founded on such principles, and embracing such objects of instruction, as would entitle it to be called a national academy, could it fairly be accomplished, must be of great utility and importance. The progress of our schools and colleges, considering the age and resources of the country, is certainly respectable and highly flattering to the enterprise and genius of our people. There seems, however, to be wanting an important wheel in the system; which, without impairing the value of any one now in motion, might act as a primary moving power, and communicate energy and stability to the whole extensive machine.

It may be thought a degree of arrogance and presumption to carry our suggestion, on a subject of such delicacy and importance, any further. But waiving an extreme sensibility to diffidence and reserve, we shall further suggest, that the institutions contemplated, should embrace the general circle of science supposed to be included in a liberal education. That, in a special manner, the learned languages and mathematics should be taught much farther than they commonly are, in this country. For, it must be confessed, that our college graduates are, as a body, very deficient in those essential branches of learning; though some of our colleges, at the present time, are making noble exertions to remedy these defects.

The English language is professedly taught in all our schools of learning. It is, however, not cultivated in a manner best calculated to give it that perfection, which is desirable, and probably attainable. Though professedly taught, it seems to be for the most part overlooked and lost in the rapid succession of numerous objects, considered as more directly classical; and scholars retire from such without being perfected, or even well grounded, in orthography, etymology, syntax or prosody. It thence happens, that the language of the nurse ever predominates over that of the master, provincial dialects prevail, and the reflection sometimes cast upon our colleges, proves but too

true, that a collegian, as such, is seldom a good English scholar.*

History and government embrace some of the most important branches of knowledge, which ever invited the attention of man. Objects of such magnitude and splendor, should engage and fix the attention of young men more strongly, and for a much longer time, than is usual in our seminaries of learning. Instead of forming a single science, their necessary elements combine a cluster of the most elevated sciences, and among classical pursuits, they are certainly some of the most interesting.

Oratory is taught in our colleges with little success. Boys, who have been well taught in grammar schools, are frequently observed to return from college worse speakers, than they entered. This is not owing to inattention or want of skill in their tutors at college, but wholly to want of time. Sciences of such importance crowd on so fast, that, in fact, more time must be taken, or some things must be neglected.

The learned professions have certainly been pursued in this country with success. But the advantages, arising from an institution liberally endowed in these respects, must be obvious to every reflecting mind.

Several things must be perceived to be requisite to the establishment of such an academy.

It must be made an object of legislative provision. Reliance could not be had on the resources of individuals. It is presumed, that it might be made a public expense without increasing burdens, involving embarrassments, or exciting murmurs. It must be situated centrally; rather as to intelligence than territory. Its discipline must be strict. Nor will it probably ever succeed, without its governing authorities can, in some way, be clothed with civil power. The instructors employed must be men of very great learning and abilities. The qualifications for admittance must be high and distinguishing, and regulated both by age and attainments. The term of continuance should be much longer than is usual at public schools; nor should a scholar be capable of receiving degrees, but by merit and a certain age. The libraries, apparatus, and salaries, and, of course, the funds of the institution, must be great.

* Is it not desirable, that the English language should be more studied at college, even though other languages should be studied less?—*Ed.*

Could such an institution be established in the United States, various important benefits would be derived from it. It would strongly tend to abolish provincial dialects, of course, to improve and perfect our own language, which at present, is in danger, from so wide a territory, such a compounded mass of society, and so feeble and disconnected a plan of education. Nor would its influence be less, in forming many eminent literary characters; of which at present we cannot boast. The sciences of history and government ably instructed and deeply studied, would not fail of their salutary effect.

This institution would rouse all the colleges in the several states to emulation, or rather would rouse the several states to patronize the colleges, and prove, in that way, a source of general improvement; and by that means, we should soon rise to a level with the nations of Europe in point of literature. In one word, it would promote the great interest of literature and government, and from the operation of various causes, strengthen the harmony and union of the states.

Several apparent singularities in the preceding plan have arisen from a strong conviction, that boys are generally allowed to finish their education too young. By these means, many of our finest geniuses are lost to society. They are sent very young to school, where, perhaps, they discover marks of genius, which excite great hopes of future excellence. Parental fondness and the vain ambition of the teacher press them rapidly, and of course, superficially, through their studies. They are hastened away to college, enter, and perhaps graduate at fifteen or sixteen years of age. By the time they are eighteen, they need to enter freshmen, and go through the same course again, to make them decent scholars.

It is clearly perceived, that various deviations from this plan might be necessary, in case of actual experiment. But not to enter into the merits of the main question relative to this subject, we shall only observe, that there seem to be two defects in the plan of education pursued by the people of the United States. The first is the want of a sufficient number of men of eminent erudition and literature. The preceding plan, or something similar, would tend to remedy this defect. The second is, the dangerous power the great body of the people have in their hands, to neglect the education of their children. Some of the wisest nations of

antiquity considered, that parents were not the proper persons to be trusted with the education of their children, on account of their natural affection and partiality for them. This matter therefore, was under the direction of their council of state, and was thought one of its most weighty concerns, as most certainly it was.

The happy effect of establishing schools by law in every district of people of size sufficient for that purpose, has been demonstrated by experience, in various parts of this country. Their townships are laid off into districts, consisting of thirty or forty families each. In each of these a board of trustees, or more properly, a school committee, is appointed. It is the business of this committee to provide a teacher, who must be examined, approved and licensed; and also to superintend the affairs of the school. A sum of money is levied upon the town, sufficient to pay the masters of the several schools, and is assessed upon every man, as other taxes are, according to his ratable estate. This money is apportioned and paid out of the several districts, according to the number of children they contain over four and under sixteen years of age. This system has the following excellencies:

1. It compels every man to do his duty; and next to the duties a man owes to his Maker, probably none are more important, than those he owes to his children.

2. If a man is compelled to pay his school tax, whether he sends his children to school or not, he will be likely to send them. Whereas if his paying be optional, he will often be under a strong temptation not to pay, and of course neglect the education of his children.

3. The poor who may have numerous families, will have little to pay, and yet may school all their children.

4. Many rich men, who have few or no children, will pay liberally for the education of the children of the poor; than which, they cannot make a more acceptable offering in the sight of Heaven, or do mankind a greater favor.

These suggestions are made in the firm persuasion, that the establishment of schools by law over this widely extended country, will greatly conduce to promote the happiness, and perpetuate the liberties of the people.

RELIGION.

It is extremely evident, that liberty of conscience is among the natural rights of mankind. Nothing can be more reasonable, than that a man should enjoy his own opinions concerning his Maker, and a future state. But the unskillfulness of most nations has led them so to blend religion with state policy, as to render religious disputes a matter of temporal interest. Hence have originated innumerable persecutions and wars; and the repose of nations has often been interrupted by religious quarrels.

The Christian church had scarcely time to take breath, from the incessant persecutions of the Roman emperors, before she began to persecute her own refractory children. In the fury of her misguided zeal, she grew intolerant, haughty and cruel; and, for several centuries seemed to dispute the character of cruelty, with the worst of the heathen emperors. The reader of history is compelled to deplore the persecuting spirit, which seemed destined to reign and triumph in the midst of all the improvements of modern Europe—in the midst, we might almost say, of learning, philosophy and benevolence. For, however expanded the human mind became, however exalted by science and virtue, many of the wisest of men could not but think it right, that all should be compelled to think with them, and subscribe to their articles of faith.

Some honorable efforts had been made in Europe toward emancipating the minds of men from this tyrannical chain; but that noble work was effected in this country. Here the Ruler of providence planted a nation, which, he designed should give to the universe, one illustrious specimen of religious freedom. This grand exhibition was to be made under every advantage. The experiment was not left to be effected by some petty tribe, some obscure horde, some remote clan in a narrow corner, but by a nation possessing one of the fairest, most opulent and extensive political divisions of the earth; a nation, grown numerous by natural population, rich by unparalleled industry, and powerful by its own inherent firmness, bravery and virtue.

In the United States, the constitutions both of the general and state governments, breathe the purest spirit of religious liberty. There can be no greater proof of this, than that such a spirit prevails and reigns through every part of the

United States. There exists *no subordination of sects or parties*. Every man may worship GOD, according to the dictates of his own conscience. No one disturbs him; no one rebukes him. The stern features of bigotry, if they exist, are kept covered under a double veil. The threatening voice of spiritual despotism is never heard.

In the country, there are various religious denominations, such as Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Baptists, Quakers, Methodists, &c. If perfect harmony does not, in every instance, prevail among them, it is more from accidental causes, than from any rancor, occasioned by their distinguishing tenets. While we cannot but observe the harmony of the different religious sects, with a degree of pleasure, we lament, that such differences should exist; and especially, that the breach should be unnecessarily widened, as it seems, in some cases, to be, where Christians put up more bars, than their tenets seem to require or justify.

The enlightening and conversion of the heathen, have of late years, considerably engaged the attention of the Christian world. Attempts have been made in Europe, to send missionaries into various parts, for that purpose; and the people of the United States, have also been roused in their attention to the same salutary object. Various denominations of Christians have severally combined their influence and exertions. It is ardently to be wished, that this business may so prosper, as to form the leading trait in the religious character of these times; and, especially, that it may form an all-important era in the history of savage nations, by enrolling them with civilized and Christian people.

Our debt to savage nations, both of reparation and benevolence, is immense. If the Christian be the true and only saving religion, of what importance it is, that they should know it! Their instruction and improvement form an object, not unworthy even of the patronage of government. The voice of humanity loudly bewails their deplorable condition. We may safely affirm, that legislative interference is often employed in matters of less magnitude; but we may rest assured, that the government of this country will, at least, smile on the benevolent designs and endeavors of individuals, and will smooth the way for their accomplishment.*

* The patronage extended by our government, to the Cherokee and Choctaw missions, cannot but excite the gratitude of every benevolent heart.—*Ed.*

If the prejudices of heathens against Christianity are strong, they are fortified in them by facts of a most stubborn and glaring nature. They judge of this religion, to them unknown, by what they consider the best means of judging, the conduct of nations professing it. A history of the aggressions of Christian nations upon the heathen, would form a volume of the most glaring crimes. On this score, what a catalogue of enormities would be found in the countries and islands of India, in Africa, in the West-Indies, in South America and in various parts of North America. What oppression, injustice and monstrous outrage, the defenceless people of those unenlightened climes, have suffered, from nations professing the just, holy, humane and pacific principles of Christianity!

For those nations, thus suffering, thus bleeding with recent wounds, it is natural to view in one light the professor, and the religion professed.

To this, as a principal cause, it is doubtless owing, that so great a part of the world still remains heathen. Those nations, who have been favored most with the light of science and truth, have improved their superior advantages to the injury and ruin of their fellow-creatures less informed. While Christians, as a body, conducted agreeably to their principles, while they behaved like subjects of the Prince of peace, success attended their doctrines, their institutions spread with rapidity, and their missionary labors were not in vain. But those happy days have been long past. Christian nations, once having become powerful, thought no more of converting the heathen, but by the point of the sword; and they have carried on this mode of conversion upon the most extensive scale, and with a high hand. Millions have fallen a sacrifice, and the remnant have only survived to hate, abhor, and curse the Christian name, from father to son, forever.

It is time to think of reparation. But, alas! what amends can be made for past ages, and for innumerable millions? I forbear to mention the awful reparation, which even *now* may be preparing for their ruin. Almighty Providence has their destroyers in his hand; but their blood, even the atrocious guilt of their destruction, has descended and rests on the heads of Christian powers now on the stage of action. They, too, are in the hand of the same just Providence, which has determined their fall. The present severe commotions can only be regarded as the move-

ments of that high and dreadful wheel, which will pass over and crush them, and cause them to become like chaff of the summer threshing-floor.

May we hope that our infant country is reserved to a happier destiny? Such a hope can only be grounded on the idea of our cleaving wholly to the Christian character. If we do this, we shall not only enjoy the smiles of Heaven, and the solid and lasting benefits of divine protection, but we shall look upon the poor savages, on our borders, as our unhappy brethren, and shall not only treat them with clemency, but make every possible exertion for their instruction and salvation.

It cannot be doubted, that the perfect religious freedom prevalent in this country, is in some instances, abused to the purpose of licentiousness. It probably tends to promote and cherish a great diversity of opinions. Perhaps it is often attended with gross neglects of religious institutions, such as the sabbath, and attendance on public worship. It has been accused of favoring infidelity, and leading to the utter neglect and contempt of all religion. Experience, however, refutes the accusation. It is confidently presumed, that religion is regarded with as much sincerity in this country, as in any, where there is less religious freedom.

But should it even be granted, that libertinism, in some instances, seems to be rather encouraged by such unbridled freedom, as well might one urge as an objection to free government, that it tends to licentiousness in the people. The important and incalculable benefit resulting from our religious system, is the general diffusion of light and knowledge. When a man is left to choose his own religion, the moment he is convinced, that important consequences are likely to result from his choice, he begins to listen, to inquire, to examine, to discuss. He finds others engaged in the same pursuit. They prompt, encourage, and aid one another. It thence happens, that no other country on earth equals this for religious inquiries. Nor is there any country, where the people, as a body, are so well informed in religious matters.

GOVERNMENT.

The government of the United States seems to be without a parallel. We find nothing like it in modern times. Anciently the Greeks had something, which resembled it;

but that resemblance was indeed remote and feeble. Their Amphictyonic council was little different from an assembly of ambassadors, saving that they met regularly both as to time and place; and, when convened, their proceedings were more like some kind of supreme court, than a representative legislative body.

Our government is no less singular as to its nature, than as to its origin. It is, perhaps, the only government which, in all its parts, was the result of plan, foresight, or design. Most governments have been jumbled into existence, from mere accident, by a concurrence of unforeseen events. Great things have grown from small beginnings. Men have been fatigued into compliance with the dictates of prompt and daring ambition; and have acquiesced in a system of arbitrary power. But in our case, a number of men, competent to so great a work, sat down and planned our government. Before them lay the legislation of past ages. They saw the rocks and shoals, on which many had dashed. They did what they could for our benefit. The plan they formed was dictated by their knowledge of our circumstances; and it is probably the ablest and best plan of government, ever formed by man.

In all human concerns, theory and practice are often found to differ. We shall not so far infringe upon the sphere of the politician, as to meddle with the practical part, that is, the administration of our government; nor shall we take any other notice of the theory, than as a mere matter of speculation. No human government can be perfect. Of course, the best ever devised by mortal man, must be subject to changes, inconveniences, weaknesses and, ultimately, to dissolution.* Man himself must fail; and can it be thought strange, that all his works should, in that respect, resemble him?

Some writers insist, that a government, in order to have virtue, strength and duration, must combine the three principles of monarchy, aristocracy and democracy. It cannot be doubted, that monarchy is the strongest form of government; that aristocracy has the most wisdom; and democracy, the most virtue. Could a government be formed, which would unite the strength of monarchy without its tyranny; the wisdom of aristocracy without its am-

* There seems to be no necessity that our excellent government should be destroyed, till the world itself is destroyed.—*Ed.*

bition; and the virtue of democracy without its weakness and folly, that form would be the best.

Our government is wholly without the monarchical branch. It only combines aristocracy with republicanism. The probability is, that, though republican in theory, it will, in the course of events become, in a great measure, aristocratic. Our executive power is weak, and the aristocratic tendency of the whole machine, too obvious to escape the notice of any one who looks attentively at it. Power and influence can never be long separated from wealth. Many governments in theory, have professed to confer honor and office according to merit. No theory has been more specious than ours. But, in this country, the honors and offices will be controlled by a chain of influence, whose last link will be made fast by a golden stapel. True, it may be said, that our government is elective, and almost every man is eligible to office. But what is our chief magistrate? He is elevated at the head of several millions of people. If there is such a thing as a natural aristocracy in society, he must be from that class. He must be a man of the most elevated dignity—a man of a mind far superior to other men, and whose life, character, circumstances and fortunes have combined to raise him far above the common level. Hence, though the office is elective, yet it is as completely beyond the reach of the great mass of the people, as though it were hereditary.

Let it be supposed, that there are seven men in the United States, adequate to the discharge of the duties of President. Their depth can only be fathomed and their qualifications traced, by men of nearly equal capacity. The great body of the people never saw, and never will see, those seven. They must be made known to the community, by men of an intermediate grade of intelligence, who are still far above the common level. Perhaps one hundred men must be the sources of intelligence to the millions who compose the nation. Nor yet can this hundred act upon the community, but by another intermediate grade, consisting, we will say, of a thousand. Thus it appears, that our right of suffrage, in the election of our chief magistrate, is an immensely complicated system of influence, interest, favor, confidence and proxy. A chain of influence, composed of ten thousand links, and divided into ten thousand branches, descends with tortuous course to the great body of the people. Nobody can tell where, or how, it begins. If it

is corrupt in its source, it seldom grows purer in its propagation; or, if it arise from a pure fountain, it is often checked and defeated in its progress. One man tells me to vote for A—another tells me to vote for B. I know nothing of A or B, but from the distant and discordant murmurs of a common fame. I decide the important question, therefore, not by comparing the qualifications of A and B, but by balancing the integrity and good sense of two persons much nearer me, by whom A and B are recommended.

And who are the senators of the United States? They are two in number from each state. They should be, as all acknowledge, men of great abilities, great integrity, and supereminent virtue. They can be found only in the highest and most dignified walks of life. They must be men, the general current of whose lives has evinced their greatness and integrity—of course, men rarely to be found. They must be selected from the happy few, who, by a peculiar destiny, are fit to be entrusted with the most arduous and important concerns of a nation. The right of suffrage, therefore, in the great body of the people, avails no more than this, viz. to say which one of the few shall be the man; nor can they say that, till they are told which one *shall be the man*, by somebody who knows him better than they do.

The same observations apply with equal force to the choice of the members of the house of representatives. We will suppose, that each member of that house has forty thousand constituents. Not one fourth of them have any personal knowledge of him, nor any knowledge of him, but by information from, perhaps, some man, who knows some man, who knows some man, &c. who knows him better than they do. It amounts to this, that, from among the few qualified for that important office, one must be selected; and it should be the one, who is the best among forty thousand. As a general principle, it will happen, that this office will be obtained by the most opulent, influential, or intriguing men in society—men elevated far above the common level; and sometimes men who are strangers to the views, feelings, and interests of the great body of the people. Therefore, although we have no titles of nobility in our country, yet all the branches of government being organized and made up of men of a class superior in point of intellect, interest, influence, and, we might add, of intrigue, it can scarcely

be doubted, that it will, one day or other, tend to aristocracy.

A government, composed of branches from different classes of men, which branches, in the proper exercise of their power, will be actuated by an opposition of interest and prerogative, will check and balance itself, and by action and re-action, will preserve an equilibrium; but when all parts of government are from men of one class—have but one interest, and lean the same way, the consequence is obvious. In a word, in the formation of governments, allowance should be made for man as a selfish being; and, in the different branches, that selfishness should be so situated as to impel them in different directions. When a man's interest leads him to do right, we have the surest pledge of his conduct.

In our country, the vast objects to be disposed of by periodical and frequent elections, will be a fruitful source of contention and difficulty. The amplest field for chicanery and intrigue, will be opened, that ever existed. Merit is generally modest, and rather seeks concealment; while ambition assumes a thousand forms of disguise, stoops to the meanest arts, and is always noisy for the public good.

The co-existent powers of the general and state governments, especially in the legislative and judiciary departments, render the whole machine as complicated, as it is great. It will require time, and, it is feared, more wisdom and virtue than are common to mankind, to define their respective limits, to adjust duly their interfering claims, to extend or restrain their jurisdictions, as may be necessary on future emergencies.

One of the most serious evils, to which the constitution of our government is liable, (and the same may be said of all written constitutions,) is the power, caprice, ambiguity and fallacy of construction. The instrument is very concise, though perhaps nothing of a similar nature was ever more explicit and intelligible. The political tactician, however, can easily demonstrate, that no system of law or form of government can be couched in such language, as to be beyond the reach of sophistry. The clearest, most forcible and positive expressions, are liable to constructions, glosses, colorings and perversion. It is remarkable, that some of the greatest and most important political disputes in this country, have arisen respecting the intent and mean-

ing of the constitution. In those disputes, not only the people at large, but even statesmen, have actually taken different sides, and maintained the controversy in the most strenuous manner.

But without virtue in the people—indeed, without great wisdom and circumspection, the best theory that ever existed on paper, will be like a paper wall opposed to the cannon's mouth. The wisest regulations, the best laws, will be censured as unconstitutional, through mere perversion; the constitution itself will be assailed, under pretext of amendment; it will be curtailed, mutilated, undermined, and destroyed. Nothing can prevent evils of this nature, but public virtue.

The vast disparity among the different states will ultimately prove a source of danger to our government. So long as human nature remains what it now is, men will not fail to avail themselves of the power put into their hands, and, generally, to selfish purposes. While some of the states are as large as the kingdoms of Europe, others are quite diminutive, and, on the principle of equal representation, must have little influence in the general government. An equality in the Senate can by no means give the small states an equiponderance, since in the lower house, the essential laws of the Union generally originate. On this rock, the Grecian republics were ruined. Though it must be confessed, we are far better provided for against the evil, than they were, yet our provision may prove ineffectual. The larger states will be likely to predominate, and govern. This will occasion negotiations, combinations and intrigues, till, at length, *Lacedemon*, *Athens*, or *Thebes*, will rule the rest.

The theorist cannot but see the defect in our judiciary system. The judiciary department, under every free government, is the proper guard of the laws. But, in our country, the laws of the union are, in a great measure, left to the guardianship of courts, whose existence depends on the state legislatures. It may, indeed, be said, that this will serve to guarantee the liberties of each state. Will it do this? Or rather will it not repose the security of the general government on the virtue of each individual state?—a prop too feeble for the weight it sustains. The causes, of which the federal court holds jurisdiction, are few, and of small importance, compared with the vast pecuniary concerns of the state courts; while, on the other hand, the

legislative concerns of the general government, as much outweigh those of the several states. It amounts to this, that the legislative power of this country is held by the general government; the judicial by the several states. It will also serve to set this matter in a stronger light, by observing that it has been the manifest policy of some of the larger states, to lessen the sphere and diminish the importance of the federal courts.

No organ of government can be considered as complete, in which there does not exist a plenitude of legislative, executive and judicial powers. The general government legislates, and looks to the state judiciaries for the carrying of its laws into effect. But if, as many assert, the state governments are to operate as a check upon the general government; if they are to be considered as the anchor of our liberties, how plausible will be their pretext, and how frequent their opportunities for opposing the laws of the union. In the present calm of public passions, and reign of virtue, while, as yet, many of those patriots are alive, who first asserted and accomplished our freedom from a foreign yoke, there is, perhaps, little danger from these sources; but the time may come, when things shall be quite altered. Such a time probably will come long before our population shall equal the means of subsistence in our country.

To give symmetry and permanence to our system of government, one would be induced, from pursuing the preceding train of reflections, to think that our federal judiciary should be as extensive in its jurisdiction as the legislature. Perhaps, however, the importance of the state judiciaries is necessary to the subsistence of the states in their distinct capacity. How far, and in what sense are the individual states independent? How far are they consolidated? What is the nature and strength of their union? How is that union to be preserved? and how long will it last?

THE SPIRIT OF OUR GOVERNMENT AS IT RELATES TO FOREIGNERS.

No government was ever more benevolent or liberal to foreigners, than that of the United States. It has held out to them, the greatest encouragements; nor has it disappointed their expectations. When arrived in this country, they have been fostered and cherished with the greatest care, and sympathy for their lonesome and exiled condition.

They have been taken by the hand, not only by our citizens, but by the government itself. They have not only been aided in business, but have been made citizens, and honored with the public confidence, by appointments to offices under the government.

The object of our people and of the government itself, in this matter, has doubtless first been to promote emigrations from Europe. The first settlers in this country, while it was yet a mighty wilderness, considered themselves as in a kind of voluntary exile.

They seemed for a long time to want nothing so much as inhabitants. Even after they had grown so numerous, as to feel no fear of the savages, still there was an almost boundless continent before them. They felt the want of people on all accounts; to clear off the woods; to cultivate the lands; to carry on the manual arts; to promote the liberal sciences; and, in short, for all the grand objects of peace and war.

To them, nothing was so desirable, as the arrival of new settlers. They solicited emigrations, and received and caressed strangers from all nations, with the utmost warmth and sincerity.

This disposition becoming habitual and universal, it descended from father to son, and lost nothing even by that revolution, which severed us from Great Britain, and made us an independent nation. When the present federal government was formed, it could not but savor of those notions of government, which were co-extensive with the Anglo-Americans, and had been coeval with their first settlement in this country. An immense country; few people; a territory, but the margin of which was as yet settled; universal liberty, both civil and religious; freedom of thought and speech; great sincerity of mind and simplicity of manners; respect for, and confidence in strangers coming to live among us, were objects whose influence predominated in the minds of all classes, not excepting those, who formed our state constitutions.

To increase the population of our extensive territories, provision was made for the encouragement of emigration. The warm benevolence of individuals, prompted them to institute societies for the aid of emigrants, and legal provision was made, that, in a short time, and with little trouble, they might become our fellow-citizens, and partake of all the privileges and immunities of our country. Nor

did our zeal to promote the cause of foreigners stop here. Several of them, in various parts, were promoted to offices of considerable trust and importance, and were allowed to share largely in the honors, powers and emoluments of government.

The people of the United States, in their favor to foreigners, were prompted by purer motives, than those of a selfish nature. Although they saw their interest in an increase of population, yet humanity itself, and that of the most generous and elevated nature, had much influence in this business. They wished their country might be an asylum for the poor and oppressed from all nations. It was their ambition to give strangers, who wanted a country and a home, so welcome a reception, and afford them such privileges as to efface from their memories the days of their affliction and distress, or to cause them to be remembered, only to heighten the contrast of their present good fortune and felicity. Many an unhappy exile can, with great propriety, say, *I was a stranger, and ye took me in.*

It is not unlikely, however, that the future historian will be compelled to say, that our government, in relation to foreigners, erred through excess of benevolence and urbanity. In general, the incentives to emigration were both needless and unsafe. From the natural progress of population, our increase was great, almost without a parallel. Far distant from the desolating wars of Europe, our fathers dwelt in the bosom of peace and plenty, and under the smiles of Providence, had yearly accessions of strength, more to be relied on, than mercenary armies, or any description of foreign emigrants.

The rapid increase of any nation, by means of an influx of foreigners, is dangerous to the repose of that nation; especially if the number of emigrants bears any considerable proportion to the old inhabitants. Even if that proportion is very small, the tendency of the thing is injurious, unless the new comers are more civilized and more virtuous, and have at the same time, the same ideas and feeling about government. But if they are more vicious, they will corrupt; if less industrious, they will promote idleness; if they have different ideas of government, they will contend; if the same, they will intrigue and interfere.

The people, brought up in the bosom of the British kingdoms, are essentially different from us, both in their

views and feelings about government. Though they may use the same words that we use; though they express the same abhorrence of tyranny and oppression, yet liberty, considered as a creature of the mind, is with them a different thing, from what it is with us. It is no difficult matter to account for the licentious views of liberty, and the romantic ideas of the freedom of this country, entertained by the lower classes of Europeans. From their infancy, they have associated with government and law, the idea of tyranny and injustice, and with liberty, a state of society as unrestrained, as a state of nature. When they come into this country, and find law and government of a sterner cast, than they had figured to themselves, they soon grow discontented and seek for a revolution.

The history of Rome furnishes a striking instance of the deplorable effects of an influx of strangers into a country. After the Romans had conquered Carthage, Greece, Asia and Gaul, Italy presently was filled with enterprising emigrants from all quarters. Though they came, as it were, singly, and as humble suppliants, yet they, in effect, conquered their conquerors. They inundated all Italy. The majesty of the ancient Romans was obscured, overwhelmed, and utterly lost, in an innumerable swarm of foreigners. The evil came on by slow and imperceptible degrees; but was at last irresistible and fatal. These were the persons generally employed in the civil wars. A multitude made up of such people is always fickle, inflammatory, outrageous, vindictive, and burning with ambition to level all distinctions.

It is not a common case, that the most valuable members of society emigrate. As it was in the days of David, who-soever was in debt, or discontented, or in distress, fled to the cave of Adullam, and by that means, his army grew apace; so it generally is in cases of emigration. Though many worthy characters are found in so great an emigration, as has been to this country, yet, for the most part, they are poor, distressed, overwhelmed with calamities, discontented, oppressed by the tyranny of their government sometimes, but more commonly, by their own vices or imprudence.

The people of every country are the most suitable to govern their own country. Could Pitt and Fox be restored to life, they would not make good legislators in America. If, indeed, in a few illustrious instances, it would answer, as

there is no general rule without exceptions, yet the principle here laid down, is certainly correct. In whatever country, foreigners interfere with government, the tendency of that interference is a change either for better or for worse ; and the tendency of changes, especially when the effect of blind causes, is but too well known.

The frame of our government is probably as faultless, as can be expected in this imperfect world.* Its ultimate success must then depend upon its being wisely administered. Relative to that article, our security lies in our elections. As, in our form of government, the right of suffrage is among the most important of civil rights, it should be preserved inviolate ; but it should be guarded with the severest caution. Foreigners, who arrive in this country, seldom come with an expectation of becoming legislators here. Their confidence in our government probably brought them hither, where they ought not to hope for more than complete security of life, liberty and property. More than such security would, in the end, work injury to themselves.

To illustrate the subject, we will state an extreme case. We will suppose the government of the United States wholly given into the hands of strangers and foreigners. An arrangement of this nature, every one must see, would by completely ruining the country, ruin all it contains, foreigners as well as citizens. From this, to descend to a case of a much lower nature, we will only suppose, that every foreigner, on his arrival, or soon after, should be vested with some office of government. From such a provision, two great evils would arise ; first, strangers would flock to our shores in swarms and clouds, like the locusts of Egypt ; nor would they all be of the most meritorious class ; and secondly, the offices filled by these people, would generally be wretchedly discharged. They would have neither the ability nor the disposition to discharge their duty according to our notions of duty. Nor would it remedy the difficulty, should it be granted, that their notions were more correct than ours.

From both of the preceding cases, which are more or less extreme, we will now descend to the thing, as it is. Every foreigner, soon after his arrival in our country, by a

* It is to be hoped, that vast improvements are yet to be made in the science of government.—*Ed.*

course neither circuitous, expensive, nor long, becomes a citizen in the fullest sense. He is one of the *sovereign people* of this country—is an elector, and eligible to many offices. He immediately becomes a politician—is profound in the science of government—is able to set all things right. From his cradle, his ideas of law and government have been closely associated with the most direful images of fear, terror and resentment; and he views liberty as some wild, enchanting mountain-nymph, roving through fields spread wide and adorned with flowers. With these views of law and liberty, he sets himself indefatigably at work, to mend the course of things. He declaims against oppression, flames with zeal for liberty, and seldom fails to be at the head or tail of innovation and reform, perhaps of insurrection.

It is worthy of remark, that emigrants from Europe are from a more advanced state of society, than is generally found in this country; or, at least, an older state. It thence happens that many of them, even of the lowest grade, have a certain knowledge of mankind, the necessary result of mingling with an immense mass of population. This knowledge, indeed, is chiefly made up of vanity and vice; but it helps them to great volubility of tongue, smartness of reply, and a seeming knowledge of things, which, handed out on all occasions, readily sets many people to staring at them as something extraordinary. For this very reason, many of them vulgarly pass for people of great information, especially in the circulating politics of the day. Of course they are pushed forward into offices of considerable responsibility.

The republic of Athens guarded the avenues to citizenship with great strictness. With them, foreigners could only become citizens in their great grand children. Their policy, in this respect, seemed not only safe, but necessary. Their state was so small, that could foreigners have gained admittance, they would soon have outnumbered them. It is as dangerous to be outwitted, as outnumbered; and it would be the true policy of the United States to admit no foreigner ever to the right of suffrage. No person should hereafter become a citizen, but by being born within the United States.

Far be it, that this rule should extend to the disfranchising of such, as have by any means already obtained citizenship. Many of *them* came among us, when their arrival was fortunate for us, and it should certainly prove so to them.

Their presence gave *countenance*, and their assistance *strength*. But those days are past ; and a similar occasion will never return.

Let foreigners find in this country an assylum of rest, an escape from oppression. Here let them buy, and build, and plant ; let them spread and flourish, pursuing interest and happiness in every mode of life, which enterprise can suggest, or reason justify ; but let them be exonerated from the toils of government. We do not need their hands *to steady the ark*. If we make good laws, they will share the benefit ; if bad ones, the blame will not be theirs. Let their children, born among us, become citizens by birth-right.

POPULAR ELECTIONS.

In elective governments, the most important point to be settled is, who shall have the right of suffrage ? who shall be the electors ? Surely, if this right were always to be exercised by wise and virtuous men, none but such would be chosen into office. But where the power to choose is lodged in bad hands, it is probable, that bad men will be chosen. Hence the old but true maxim, that the happiness of elective governments depends on the virtue of the people.

The conduct of the people of the United States, hitherto, has been such, as will entitle them to the character of a wise and virtuous people ; with, perhaps, some small deductions. Could it be relied on, that we should always remain as virtuous, as we now are, and perhaps a little more so, it must be granted, that the right of suffrage was put into exactly the right hands. Let us indulge the pleasing hope, that as a nation, we shall not remain stationary in our present attainments of political virtue, but shall continually progress in the same, and also in knowledge, till we become, to a man, a nation of patriots and statesmen.

In spite of the most flattering hopes, considering the various means, by which the number of citizens is daily and rapidly increased, it must be allowed to be possible, that the people of this country will grow far more corrupt. They certainly have the common inducements and temptations to that end. If ever the people of any country were corrupted by an influx of foreigners of different habits, manners and customs, we are in danger. If a sudden

increase of wealth, luxury, effeminacy, extravagance and dissipation, ever corrupted any nation, we are in danger. If it is possible for artful and designing men to assail the virtues of the lower class of people, to palm their ambitious schemes upon the unwary, to impose upon ignorance and simplicity, we are in danger.

The causes of public corruption and national depravity, at first, are slow, and work unseen. They begin to operate by insensible degrees; and are always perceived least by that part of the community, on whom their operation is most fatal. If such causes exist in this country, however much the good sense and virtue of the people may retard their operation for a while, yet they may, at length, produce their utmost effects; for the same causes, under similar circumstances, will infallibly produce the same effects.

When that time shall come, (and it may prove to be a very distant day,) our elections will, in some degree, resemble those of ancient Rome, in the latter stages of the republic, when Cesar relied chiefly on an armed force, which he knew to be devoted to his interest; when Pompey sought the favor of the people by popular laws, and when the opulent Crassus sought the same, by making dinners and various donations to a rabble, consisting of half a million of people.

The right of suffrage, in the hands of a multitude of ignorant, indigent and vicious men, is but another name for throwing the whole number of their votes in favor of any artful, aspiring demagogue, who will purchase them, at the highest price. Nor are they, indeed, very costly, being purchased for the most part, with empty flattery, and false promises. The celebrated Crassus was probably the most liberal purchaser of popular favor, to be found in the annals of history. He supported the poor of Rome at his own expense, for about nine months. It must have cost him ten millions of dollars, according to the present value of specie. The most unlucky part of the business was, that the rabble, after they had eaten up all he could well spare, in a most ungrateful manner forsook him for Pompey, who only tickled their ears with handsome speeches; and Pompey they as soon forsook, to gaze on the military splendor of Cesar. Cesar was far too generous and magnanimous. They presently put him aside, and received in his place a stern, profound and artful tyrant, under

whom they humbly kissed the rod, and lay down to their burdens forever.

If popular favor is sometimes cheaply purchased, it nevertheless always costs more than it is worth. For what is it? To answer this question, we need the pen of Shakspeare, who has given us a definition of the word *honor*. It is an hour's, or a day's, or a month's existence, in the blasting, pestiferous breath of folly and falsehood. The favorite name undulates in air to-day with boisterous acclamations of praise; to-morrow with hideous imprecations and deadly curses; and, at all times, with grosser fumes, than float around the table of the gods, after quaffing deeply of their immortal nectar. Yet demagogues, in every age, have made this same *popularity* their supreme deity; and many, poor souls! who could not give what Crassus gave to purchase it, have given more—viz. their character, integrity and conscience; at least, should character, integrity and conscience be thought worth more than ten millions of dollars; of which probably, some may doubt.

Should the time ever arrive, when there shall be an immense multitude of people in the United States, and especially about the great cities, whose indigence shall render them easily assailable by bribes, donations and largesses—whose peculiar circumstances shall render them actually dependent on the rich and enterprising, and whose habits of life and thinking shall render them promptly subservient to the views of artful and ambitious men, at least by suffrage, if not by arms; it must be granted, that at such a time, and under such circumstances, the right of suffrage will certainly give that class a weight in government, to which they are by no means entitled, upon any principle of equity, rational freedom, or public safety. Is not that time already come? It has come; but it will never be past.* The evident symptoms, by which its arrival is indicated, will never slacken their urgency, but will gain strength with our population, from year to year.

To determine, who shall have the right of voting in a popular government, is not among the smallest difficulties.

* In the blessed day, when *all shall know the Lord, from the least unto the greatest*, there will be no class of people, who, from indigence or any other cause, will be "easily assailable by bribes, donations and largesses." Though Mr. Whelpley certainly believed and rejoiced in the doctrine of the Millennium, he seems to have sometimes lost sight of this glorious and delightful doctrine.—*Ed.*

No line of qualifications can be drawn, free from objection or embarrassment. If a plan could be devised, which would recognise the rights of each individual, and afford complete security to the public, that would be the one to be preferred. If that is not attainable, the nearest approximation to it must be sought. In a country like the United States, where the landed interest is by far the most important, where land is very plenty, and very cheap, landed property should, beyond doubt, be made a qualification necessary to the right of suffrage. No person should be allowed to act as an elector, even of a state representative, but such as possessed real or landed property. A regulation of this nature exists in some of the states. Its happy influence is apparent, and will be *more so*. Those states,* from that very cause, will preserve their liberties longer than any other part of the union.

The right of suffrage thus guarded, it must be confessed, that in a few instances, injustice would seem to be the consequence. It would exclude some from voting—some who are certainly very amiable and useful members of society. But cases of this nature would be rare; and much rarer, than might be expected from a slight view of the subject. If it excluded a few worthy persons, it would at least exclude a thousand to one, who are certainly unworthy.

It should be remembered, that every person in this country, possessing property, of whatever description, might easily possess land. The popular objection to the measure, that it would disfranchise the mercantile interest, is certainly void of foundation. Merchants have property, and, if for no other reason, they might purchase land, in order to comply with a regulation, founded in the strongest reasons. The great body of those utterly unable to possess land, are persons, to whom the right of voting would absolutely be no privilege. As for property or character to defend, they have none. Generally of the lowest grades of intellect and information, they have no political theory to espouse, or errors to combat.

These last observations apply exclusively to the lowest grade of people in and about great cities. In the country, every prudent, industrious man, knows, that he can, almost at his option, possess land. It is within his reach; and the

* It is most ardently hoped, that all the states will preserve their liberties forever.—*Ed.*

savings of a few years' industry will purchase him a decent little farm, at least as large as that of the great Cincinnatus. In the states above alluded to, where landed property is made requisite to the elective franchise, prodigious benefits are found to result from the regulation, to the people themselves. It stimulates them to seek and acquire real property. A man there disdains the idea of not being a freeholder. He immediately sets himself about purchasing a little land. Ambition spurs him on. He saves every shilling, till he attains to the darling object. By the time he has paid for his little farm, his habits of industry and economy are confirmed. He then enlarges his views—strives after, and is (generally speaking) successful in acquiring, a handsome property. The principle here advocated, becomes in this way, a source of noble ambition, virtuous habits, and real felicity to thousands.

If multitudes, swarming about great cities, and more thinly scattered through every part of the country, form a numerous class, to whom the right of suffrage cannot possibly be any privilege, their holding and exercising that right will be attended with deplorable and incalculable evils to that class, to whom the right is most dear and sacred. Enterprising and ambitious men, who know their own utter dereliction of all principle, and their exclusion from the walks of honor and virtue, well know, that these people have no minds of their own. They will be perpetually intriguing among them. They will not fail to condense and concentrate their otherwise scattered opinions, and throw all their weight into one scale. It is needless to say what scale that will be. The intriguing and ambitious, knowing how impossible it is, and will ever be, for themselves to rise by merit, have their eye constantly upon this class of people, as the true source of their elevation to power.

It is time the people of this country were made sensible of their danger. Their progress in the path of corruption is rapid; and by holding the door to citizenship so wide, and making the elective franchise so cheap, they invite all strangers, and allure all the outcasts of fortune's children to hover upon our coasts, like a cloud of harpies; yea, to plunge into our public affairs, to put shoulder to the wheel and push us on to destruction.

The rage of office and the spirit of electioneering have made no small progress; but more or less of these evils

must always be expected to accompany the privileges of a free and popular government. It is doubtless the highest wisdom of every American to endeavor to give stability to our present frame of government, and perpetuity to our national union; to strive to moderate the passions and harmonize the jarring interests of parties. And much is to be hoped for, from the wisdom and virtue of the American people. A storm seems to be gathering at a distance; we know not where it will fall. It, therefore, becomes all the friends of their country to be circumspect, wise, firm and united.

CONCLUSION.

Thus have we attempted to delineate the great line of history. Beginning with the infancy of our race, we have seen the world overspread with people, divided into numerous nations and languages. We have seen the mighty fabric of social, political and religious order, rising by degrees, assuming various forms, diffusing its benign influence over mankind, and descending down through all ages, with additional improvements, to our own times. Having traced but a single line through the immensity of human concerns, we have left, on each hand of our course, extensive fields unexplored. To them, we now recommend the young reader to turn his attention; with an assurance, that he will receive the richest remuneration for his labors.

Having arrived at our times, we have adventured a transient glance at the present state of our species in the world. We are compelled to say, that the prospect over Asia and Africa is gloomy—over Europe it is doubtful, and, on the whole, we both see and feel numerous reasons of gratitude to Divine Providence, who has cast our lot in this highly favored land.

THE IMPORTANCE OF HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE.

Whether we regard profit or pleasure, historical knowledge is of use. As history abounds with beauty, novelty and grandeur, it opens various sources of pleasure to the imagination; and as it brings up before us transactions numerous, past and distant, it assists experience, by present-

ing, in one view, the causes and consequences of great events.

The life of one man is far too short, and the sphere of his observation too small, to acquire an adequate knowledge either of what is, what has been done, or what is now doing in the world; but as there is a certain uniformity in human character and action, we may, with a degree of safety, judge of the future by the past and present.* The tendency of certain things to the happiness of nations, and the reverse—the origin and progress, the wane and dissolution of empires, can only be discovered by the light of history; nor is there any natural light, by which we can more clearly see the influence of character, morals, art and science, on the happiness of man.

At what period of life, the study of history should commence, is a point which remains unsettled. Perhaps no subject of equal literary importance, has been less regarded, less systematized or less pursued, than the study of history. It has hardly been considered as a part of education, either liberal or professional, and, for the most part becomes a by-business, deferred till late, sacrificed to inferior objects, or neglected altogether. A variety of facts lead us to conclude, it should be entered upon much earlier, than the common practice points out. The body of history is simple narration; a species of instruction adapted to the first openings of a young mind, on which deep and strong impressions are easily made. It is a common thing to put children, at an early age, to learn the rules of arithmetic, the grammatical construction of language, or even the mathematical sciences; which things are farther beyond the reach of their capacity than history, at the time—more difficult to be remembered, and of less importance.

Battles and sieges, the strong lustre of great characters, memorable events, indeed all the most prominent features of history, impress our minds with extraordinary pleasure or disgust, and commonly leave indelible marks, especially, if made while young. The histories of nations are, generally speaking, but the histories of men's passions delineated. For that reason, they strike deeper into the mind, move the passions more, and are longer felt, than cool, unimpassioned reasonings, and curious speculations.

* It is very important, that in thus judging, we should make due allowance for change of circumstances.—*Ed.*

A small acquaintance with the outlines of geography, seems the only pre-requisite to the study of history.* The student should have some idea of the figure and motion of the earth, of the general divisions of land and water—the positions and extent of the continents, islands and oceans. This is easily gained by a few short lessons on the globe.

A habit of application is necessary, in order to make progress in any study, or to arrive at eminence in any sphere of life. Our most ardent endeavors should not be wanting; and when once this point is gained, the hill of science may be easily ascended. Having sufficiently glanced over the main tract, the student may then return, and be directed in reading a regular course of ancient history.

Knowledge of history strongly inculcates the preference of virtue to vice, and the folly of human ambition. We there learn, that men, elevated on the summit of earthly glory, are less safe, and far less happy, than those in the humbler walks of life. The historian can compare the modes of life, the customs of different ages and countries, and the effects of different religions and governments on his species; a study which tends to free the mind from bigotry and superstition, and in such a mighty course of events, makes a man feel his weakness and insignificance. By the light of history, human affairs resemble a stormy sea. They foam and rage under the dire agency of tremendous passions, though subject to the higher control of Almighty power. All human institutions are seen mouldering away; and the works of art, however solid, beautiful or grand, either by the ravages of time or the blind fury of mortals, all perish. These views diminish self-importance, and leave the mind to seek higher grounds of confidence and hope.

The light of history unveils many characters; it discloses the features of the ambitious tyrant and aspiring demagogue, the masked hypocrite, the stern bigot and subtle politician. True history is a gem of inestimable value. It seems almost to remedy the defects of human foresight. We there learn, how short-sighted many legis-

* Some acquaintance with numbers seems necessary, in order to understand geography. And there is no doubt, that arithmetic, if properly taught, may be delightfully instilled into the tender mind. The student should also be acquainted with maps, and consult them as he proceeds in history. In order to do this with advantage, he should know something of Geometry.—*Ed.*

lators have been in promulgating laws, utterly inconsistent with the good of society; for while the statesman, in the busy scenes of life, is bewildered in the ambiguity of probable effects, and, like a pilot, who cannot feel his helm, cannot discern the drift of empire, the historian, calmly seated in the shade of contemplation, lifts his perspective, begins at the spring, and carefully traces the tortuous course of governments and empires, sees them, like a river, dashing over precipices, majestically rolling through plains, or disappearing in the ocean.

Having travelled in thought over these extensive and diversified fields, he returns to the occurrences of his own time, matured with the experience of ages, furnished with principles and remarks drawn from the sublimest exhibitions of virtue, contrasted with every thing hateful in the human character. In walking among the sepulchres of empires, he sees hung up as beacons, the catastrophes of all ancient governments; he beholds, with emotions of wonder, pity and dread; and sometimes weeps over the inevitable destiny of human institutions. These views at once expand and enrich the soul, which feels a mournful but sublime pleasure, in tracing the vestiges of exalted virtue among the monuments of antiquity.

The statesman, politician and legislator will derive essential benefit from the knowledge of history; since it is there alone, he can trace the origin and operation, and, of course, the excellencies and defects of the various forms of government. From the grand monarchies of Cyrus, Alexander and Cesar, he may pass down to those of China, Turkey and Russia, as they now are; or from the republics of ancient, to those of modern times. He may compare the vices of great, with those of small, states; and especially, he may contrast the virtues of rising, with the vices of declining, states. The important conclusions, he will be able to draw from the comparisons, will form a counterpart to the pleasures he will derive from a review of those sublime fields of knowledge.

The statesman, who is acquainted with the history of nations and governments, will penetrate the false glosses, which sophistry can give to visionary theories. Far other motives, than the charm of novelty, will be necessary to induce him to put the welfare of his country at hazard, on the doubtful issue of experiments. His experience is matured by the wisdom of ages; and with him, all the

various expedients of artful, ambitious and aspiring men, are so perfectly comprehended, that they are even become trite or thread-bare; he has often seen them acted over—often detected, often despised.

The philosopher, whose ruling propensity is the love of truth and knowledge, finds perpetual gratification in the pages of history. With pleasure, he traces the streams of science from their first fountains. If his benevolent sensibilities are often pained, he is more than compensated by viewing the stupendous wheel of human affairs, rolling through all ages; and if “The proper study of mankind is MAN,” the history of nations is the book comprehending that important science; and without the reading of which, a man must always remain a child. History and philosophy are auxiliaries to each other, in expanding and enriching the mind. For, while the former presents before us innumerable shades of character, innumerable minds acting under the influence of various propensities, while all human concerns, from those of the humble shepherd, to those of the universal monarch, there solicit our attention, invite our esteem and challenge our admiration, philosophy conducts us to some commanding eminence, and bids us take a view of the universe. There an expanse opens, which no imagination can compass. Through the illimitable tracts of space, we contemplate worlds of *light* profusely, yet permanently planted; their numbers incalculable, and their distances inconceivable. There globes roll around us, in comparison with which, our earth diminishes as it were to nothing. Man is but “an atom of an atom world;” and the generations of six thousand years, to beings of superior natures, appear like the successive tribes of insects, which, in the morning, sport on the surface, and, ere sunset, are lost in the bosom of the troubled lake.

The philosopher, so far from envying the proud monarchs of the earth, looks on them as objects of pity; and is so far from coveting a share of their glory, that he can only desire them to “stand from between him and the sun.”*

History affords many considerations calculated to confirm the faith and strengthen the hopes of the Christian. To say nothing of the fulfilment of scripture prophecies, concerning the ancient monarchies and Jewish and Christian

* When Alexander inquired what he could do to oblige Diogenes, “Stand from between me and the sun,” said the philosopher.—*Ed.*

churches, history in general shews, that man's character, in all ages has been uniform ; that he is a depraved creature ; and may convince us, that if he ever rises from this depraved and selfish state, it must be by other means than his own exertions. It uniformly corroborates the idea, that as sin and misery, so virtue and happiness are connected ; and hence we infer the excellency of virtue, and the turpitude of vice.

A careful attention to the great course of events, as related in history, will strengthen the mind to the belief in a wise, powerful, overruling and universal Providence. Whoever looks upon the workmanship of a clock, will acknowledge it to be the work of design ; and so will he who observes the revolutions of the heavenly bodies, the change of the seasons, the mechanism of an animal body, or even the structure of any of its particular parts, as an eye or an ear. But in no part of nature is an overruling power more clearly seen than in the origin, the rise, the prosperity, the decline and fall of a nation ; and, by a due attention to these things, we may discover the wisdom, justice, and goodness of Divine Providence.

Every member of a free, enlightened republic, should, by all means read history. In a nation, where popular opinion must be the supreme arbiter, of what immense importance is it, that that opinion should be corrected by wisdom and experience ; otherwise, the political vessel will wander wide upon tempestuous seas, and be lost among rocks and whirlpools.

The study of history is peculiarly adapted to the minds of youth. In that period of life, the intellectual powers are expanding, the passions taking direction, and the character is rapidly forming. In that season of improvement, emulation and hope, a habit of reading should be formed ; and care should be taken, that the taste be not vitiated and rendered wavering, by the prevalence of any species of reading, which leaves it flighty and capricious. Alas ! how many of the days and years of youth are wasted without improvement—are utterly lost to every valuable and every noble purpose ! We too seldom begin to think, till we are incapable of action. The whole season of youth, in the greater number of instances, is so passed away, as to draw after it an age barren of knowledge and virtue, a bleak and comfortless season of care, decrepitude and sorrow ! Such is the perverseness in many, that they will not be instructed

by the experience of others. Youth will not derive improvement from age, in those points most interesting and important.

Although the present design is to urge the importance of historical information, yet many of the same arguments apply with equal force to general reading. Such as have opportunity, (and that number is larger than is generally thought,) should read many things besides history.

Theological reading, which certainly should begin* with the Bible, is very important. A thorough acquaintance with religious doctrines deeply concerns the welfare of all mankind. It is astonishing to see the ignorance of many persons on these subjects. They have, perhaps for many years, enjoyed advantages of religious instruction, but have never used them to any effect. The being and perfections of God; the immortality of the soul; an endless state of rewards and punishments; a change so amazing as that of death; the unknown realities of the coming world; in short, the immensity of God's kingdom and government: the infinitely varied works of creation; and what man is to himself as a conscious being; are objects, which seem to call for the utmost exertion of all our intellectual powers. To survey, to inquire, to learn, and to know, in the midst of a world of such wonders, demands man's noblest faculties, and certainly furnishes for them the noblest employment.

But the disease of our race seems to be stupidity. Many, too many, plod on through life, thinking only of the present. They scarcely send forward a thought into futurity, till they come upon the brink of the precipice, and it is then too late, even to acquire any settled opinions, or make any preparations. A life of the most extreme thoughtlessness, is closed with a few hours of gloomy, intense, ineffable anxiety and horror.

True religion, as appertaining to the mind, consists in just views and virtuous dispositions. Its genuine tendency is to lead men to the most careful discharge of the duties of life. But it does not stop here. It awakens in a man, a due sense of his various relations to things temporal and things eternal. It holds up to his understanding, a superior light, whereby he perceives clearly, that his best inheri-

* It is not less certain that theological reading should proceed and end with the Bible; though not to the exclusion of other books.—Ed.

tance is in his immortal state. In firm expectation and confidence of future happiness, he is resigned to the course of Providence, and waits patiently the consummation of his hopes.

The propensity, prevalent in the human mind to neglect religious studies, extends to the neglect of all mental cultivation; and it is no uncommon thing for people to neglect their minds altogether. Among the eastern nations, there are some who regard religion in the light we do the study of law or physic; that is, an occupation to be followed by a certain class of men. If, instead of the word *religion*, we substitute the phrase, *cultivation of the mind*, such a class may be found almost any where, even in our own country. They complain that they have no time; that they are pressed by business. How many hours in the day do they attend to business? How do they employ their evenings? How do they spend the Sabbath? The fact is, they have too much time. It hangs, a dead weight, upon their hands. Their business, except in a few extreme cases, is shorter, by several hours, than the day. Their dull, insipid evenings are dozed away in a vacuity of thought. Perhaps they saunter to a neighbor's house, where their conversation is of too trivial and absurd a nature to admit of being specified in a serious discourse; or perhaps they fall upon some amusement for the express purpose of killing time, as some are pleased to style it: or, in other words to pass away the evening, and escape that distressing sense of solitude, which often seizes the vacant mind.

Killing time! "Time," says the poet, "is the stuff that life is made of." To waste time, is to squander the main ingredient of life, one of the richest of heaven's blessings. O, righteous Heaven, remember it not against them in the great day of trial! lest it swell the catalogue of their crimes beyond forgiveness. As for their Sabbaths, instituted for the benevolent purpose of suspending servile labor, and acquiring the knowledge of their Creator, they are slept or idled away. Yet these people say, that they have no time to devote to the improvements of the mind. One of the most important questions a man can ask himself, is, How his time has been spent? To judge of its full import, let us consider what sensations it will excite, when, with imperative tone, it shall obtrude itself upon him in the hour of death.

The most excellent and important of all books, is the Bible. It contains a glorious manifestation of God's character, perfections and government, together with the character, duty and obligations of men, and the only way of life and salvation. It is the felicity of the present day, to possess not only this invaluable book, but to abound in religious writings, of various descriptions, calculated to strengthen the faith, and cherish the virtues of the Christian. Books of this nature are indispensably necessary to a well chosen library. They abound in discourses, which will give light, comfort and encouragement to a man, when all human sciences, even when all earthly things, however splendid and beautiful, are fading in his eye.

That species of reading, next in importance to divinity, is history. There, are seen the rise and fall of states and empires. On one page, are delineated the causes of their prosperity, and on another, of their decline. History represents the great concerns of nations in miniature. The picture is grand, but somewhat gloomy; and the correspondent emotions in him who examines it, if at times, elevated and delightful, will not fail to be shaded over with melancholy, softened, however, by the distance, and rendered sublime by the magnificence and glory of the object. The historian, however long he walks under the imbowering laurel and olive, must at length repose under the cypress shade.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE CREDIBILITY OF THE MOSAIC HISTORY.

THAT the existence of the human race has no rational claim to a higher antiquity, than is allowed in the Mosaic history, may be argued from two considerations; 1. The total want of evidence of a higher antiquity; 2. Various evidences, that the scripture chronology is correct.

1. There is a total want of evidence of higher antiquity.

Had the world existed from eternity, and man passed through an eternal series of generations, it is highly probable, that numerous evidences would exist, of periods more distant than six thousand years.

It is a thing incredible, that no traces of a much higher antiquity, should have been discovered by the Greeks,

Egyptians or Chaldeans. Yet they fixed the origin of the human race at no distant period; and, as we shall state hereafter, it is within the limits of scripture chronology.

The pretended antiquity of the Chinese and Indians, is found, upon the most strict and impartial examination, to be void of credibility. Their records are incorrect, fabulous, and made up of parts, incompatible with each other.

The grand annals of China are contained in six hundred and sixty-eight volumes, of which a copy is in France. This is abridged in a hundred volumes; from which the Abbe Crosier has extracted a work of twelve volumes, comprising a history of China. From these records, it appears, that, that empire must have originated a short time prior to the reign of Yao, which was 2057 years before Christ; of course near the time, that Ninus, or rather Ashur, founded the Assyrian empire. This statement is confirmed, not only by all Europeans, whose knowledge of the Chinese language has enabled them to examine those records, but by several learned Chinese, who have studied the languages of Europe; and this statement also corroborates the opinion, that Noah himself, or one of his sons founded that empire.

2. To these considerations we may add, that there are various evidences of the correctness of scripture chronology.

As there exists no evidence of a higher antiquity, so neither is it possible to fix the creation of the world, and the origin of the human race, in a much later period. The history and chronology of the Bible are liable to no charge of inconsistency. The facts considered in detail, or in the aggregate, want none of the genuine characters of true and impartial history. When we come to consider the sources, whence the knowledge of ancient history is drawn, we shall see, that they uniformly increase the authority, by corroborating the facts of the sacred history.

That matter was coeval with God, and independent of him, is more difficult to reconcile with the dictates of reason, or to the phenomena of nature, than the doctrine of creation and providence, as laid down in the books of Moses. If it is most easy and rational to believe what is most evident, and if wisdom and goodness are displayed in the works of nature, and throughout all the visible creation, then to abstain from believing, will be to follow the weaker, instead of the stronger reason. Those, therefore, who reject the latter, and embrace the former scheme, are more

worthy of the charge of credulity, than those, on whom they bestow it.

Neither Cicero nor Plato had any knowledge of antiquity, inconsistent with the Mosaic account of the creation. Indeed, as we extend our inquiries back into ancient ages, we evidently see all the rays of light converging to one point; beyond which, little is conjectured—nothing is evident.

The account of the deluge may be considered, as the most prominent feature of the first book of Moses. This article of the Bible history is made both the subject of cavil and ridicule by unbelievers, as a thing incredible and absurd. This they commonly do, upon the ground of its being a mere matter of revelation! The evidences, on which its credibility rests, are by no means so generally known, as the importance of the thing seems to demand.

We* shall briefly state the evidence in proof of the truth of this article.

1. Were it regarded merely as a matter of revelation, as the objection imports, still it challenges belief. As such, it must be considered as part of a system of truth, which in the sum, and in all its parts, is infallible. The history written by Moses contains nothing, but what might be looked for in the dictates of a Being of infinite wisdom. His laws can in no instance be taxed with injustice, nor his assertions with falsehood.

The character which Moses ascribes to God, as far transcends any thing found in the heathen writers, as the God of the universe is more glorious than an idol. Among the things written by Moses, the character of God, the origin of the universe, the perfect standard of morality, the maxims of civil policy, and the excellent code of laws, were all far beyond the reach of human wisdom.

This remark is so certainly true, that among all the productions of mortal men since his time, none have come within an infinite distance of him, but such as have copied from his originals, or drawn from the same fountain of inspiration.

Why then should we disbelieve his history? It states things, which, if they cannot in every instance be proved, can in no instance, be disproved—facts, which the whole

* It is hoped, that the absurd and kingly usage of the pronoun *we* for *I*, will soon cease to have the sanction of good writers and speakers.—*Ed.*

current of universal testimony corroborates. Hence, if the certainty of the deluge rested wholly on the authority of revelation, it would need no better support. So far is that from being the case, however, that, in fact, no event is more strongly attested or sustained by the belief of all the ancient nations, as we shall presently state.

2. The geography of the earth affords several strong proofs of a universal deluge. The productions of the sea are found in the most inland parts, not only on the earth's surface, but even deep in its bowels; and not only in valleys and plains, but in hills and mountains. These productions are found in such quantities, as not to be accounted for by any slight or partial cause, and in such a state, as denotes them to have been deposited there for many ages.

Had there ever been such a deluge, as Moses describes, such appearances, as are now observed, must have followed. Marine productions must have been washed up on the land, and in many places mingled with it. In one eminent instance, then, it must be allowed, that the phenomena of nature confirm the truth of the Mosaic history, and that too in an article, thought by some the most doubtful. We need inquire for but one cause for one effect; and certainly the universal diffusion of marine productions, can only be accounted for, by supposing, that the ocean once covered the earth.

The configuration of the surface of the earth, the positions of hills, mountains, valleys and plains, seem to denote some ancient war of elements. They are, generally speaking, so situated and fashioned, as might be expected from the whirlpools, currents, and eddies of the retiring flood, and can only be accounted for, as the effects of the deluge.

3. The belief of all the ancient nations, and the testimonies of many writers of antiquity, confirm Moses' account of the deluge, and shew, that no article of ancient history is better supported. We shall here state a few authorities on this subject.

1. The first authority, among the heathen writers, is that of Berosus the Chaldean. From his testimony we may learn the opinion of the Chaldeans respecting the flood. If we change the name of Noah for that of Xisuthrus, it will appear that Berosus has the whole history of the deluge complete. Berosus says, "that very anciently the gods being greatly offended at the wickedness of the human race, foretold to Xisuthrus, that they intended to destroy the

world by a deluge. Xisuthrus immediately set about building a ship of very great dimensions. After many years, a prodigious vessel was constructed, and Xisuthrus with his family entered into it, with a multitude of creatures, which were to be preserved.

“The flood then came, the face of the whole earth was covered; and the vessel which carried the only surviving family of the human race, was buoyed up, and floated on the boundless deluge. The waters at length abated, the ship chanced to land on a mountain in Armenia, called Ararat.” The same author says, that nigh to his own times, “large pieces of timber were still seen on those mountains, universally supposed to be pieces of the ship of Xisuthrus.” Many other Chaldean writers mention the same things; so that the belief of the Chaldeans in the deluge, rests on the most unquestionable authorities. Moreover, the certainty, that they did believe in it, is a consideration of great weight; for Nimrod founded their empire but a short time after the deluge; and they, of all the ancient nations, were the most likely to have correct information, as far as depended on tradition.

2. The second authority, we shall mention, is Ovid, a writer of the Augustan age. He relates the story, though with different names, much in the same way. He says, that “the gods, to punish the wickedness of man, destroyed the earth with a deluge. The destruction was so complete, that only Deucalion and Pyrrha escaped to the top of mount Parnassus.”

3. Varro, the most learned man the Roman state produced, is full to our purpose. Varro says, that “in ancient times, there was a universal deluge, in which the human race were nearly all destroyed.” He says, that the flood took place 1600 years before the first Olympiad. Now it is known, that the first Olympiad took place 776 years before Christ. This account admirably corresponds with the scripture chronology; for 1600 added to 776, makes 2376; whereas the Mosaic chronology places the flood 2348 years before Christ, a difference of only twenty-eight years in a range of time so long. When we consider the erudition of Varro, and that his chronology was drawn from the Greeks and Egyptians, and came through a different channel from that of the scripture, we may well be astonished at this coincidence, and can have no rational doubt of the correctness of the facts in question.

4. Seneca, the celebrated Roman philosopher and historian, is very particular on the subject of the deluge. He not only says the same things, as the above cited authors, but goes much further into the subject, assigning what were the probable causes of the flood. He moreover says, that as the world has once been destroyed by water, so it shall again be destroyed by fire, and like a philosopher, proceeds to account for the possibility, and even probability, of such an event.

5. Few men were more extensively read, or more deeply learned in history, than Josephus, the Jewish historian. He affirms, that we read of the deluge and the ark in the writings of all the barbarian historians; and that all the eastern nations were uniform in their belief of that article of the Mosaic history.

6. Vossius says, that a tradition prevails among the Chinese, that Puoncuus with his family, escaped from the universal deluge, and was the restorer of the human race. The same is also stated by father Martinus, the Jesuit, who was a resident in China, and who says, that all the ancient writers of the Chinese history, speak largely of the flood. Even among the Indians of North and South America, many traditions of a general deluge, are said to prevail.

7. We shall close this enumeration of authors, with the great and respectable names of Strabo, Plato and Plutarch, all of whom express their belief in a general deluge. Plutarch, particularly, says, that Deucalion, when the waters of the flood were abating, sent forth a dove, which returned with an olive leaf in her mouth. It may indeed be said, that he copied this from the history of Moses; in reply to which, we only need answer, if so, then he doubtless gave credit to that history.

Many more testimonies might be adduced on this subject; but from those already stated, those who are disposed to tax the history of Moses, in this article, with falsehood or absurdity, may see something of the nature of the controversy, in which they are engaged.

It is thought by many, that the heathen mythology deciphered, is but the history of Noah and his sons, and the original dispersion of their families. Saturn, whom mythology declares to be the father of gods and men, they say, was Noah; and Jupiter, the son of Saturn, was Ham, the son of Noah. Plato affirmed, that Saturn was the son of Oceanus and Thetis.

A bold and lively fancy would not scruple to say, that Noah was born of the sea or of the flood. Thetis was the Ocean, and Oceanus, the god, who was supposed to preside over it. As Noah passed over the deluge from the old word to the new, nothing could be more natural in those simple and pastoral ages, which followed, than for orators, poets and fabulists first, and at length for all others to celebrate him, as sprung from the sea; yea, to promote him at length into a god, and to adore him, as the father of gods and men.

When Babylon was taken by Alexander the Great, his philosopher, Calisthenes, found in the tower of Babel, astronomical observations for 1903 years preceding; i. e. from its supposed building. The Chaldeans were astronomers at a very early date; and their view in rearing that very high tower, among other things, might have been to provide a convenient observatory. Alexander took Babylon about 333 years before Christ; which would make the building of Babel 2236 years before Christ. The Mosaic history places the flood 2348 years before the Christian era. Consequently, Babel must have been begun within a little more than a century from the flood.

Three famous ancient authors, viz. Plato, Herodotus, and Diodorus Siculus, each of whom visited Egypt, fix the date of the heroic age, and what they call the wars of the great gods, at different eras, but not far from the same time. Plato fixes the date of these wars in the time of Cecrops. The "Antiquities of Greece" state that Cecrops founded the commonwealth of Athens 1450 years before Christ, or 253 years before the Trojan war. Herodotus and Diodorus fix those wars a little earlier. Between the days of Cecrops and the flood, were 898 years. In this time the Mosaic history comes down to the conquest of Canaan; and in this time took place all those transactions between gods and giants, so famous in mythology. From this statement we deduce two considerations of importance.

1. Neither the traditions nor histories of the Greeks and Egyptians claim a higher antiquity than the Mosaic history—and

2. As far as their traditions can be traced from facts, or their allegories resolved, they go rather to corroborate, than weaken the authority of that history. In this period, Menes, or Misraim, laid the foundation of the ancient kingdom of Egypt, which, it is said, the Copts and Arabs still call the land of Mesr, or Misraim. In the same period,

Nimrod founded the kingdom of Babylon—Elam, the son of Shem, founded the Persian, and Ashur the Assyrian empires. Joktan, the great grandson of Arphaxad, settled in Africa; and the sons of Japheth settled in Italy, Germany, Scythia and the East. Those who have leisure and inclination to read, may see this subject treated at large, in Bedford's Chronology.

Under this head, it shall suffice to say, that no account of the origin of the universe of creatures, has ever been presented to the human understanding, so rational, so sublime, and so consonant to the spontaneous voice of nature, as that given by Moses.

It only remains for us to inquire, whether the books called the books of Moses, are genuine; whether they were in fact, the productions of Moses; and whether Moses could have been aided in writing these books, by any other means of knowledge, than divine inspiration.

That the books of Moses, commonly called the Pentateuch, are genuine, i. e. written by him or under his immediate direction, there is satisfactory evidence. The first source of evidence we shall notice, is the regular annals of a nation. That the Israelites were an enlightened nation, is evident from the elegance and sublimity of their writings, and the wonderful and excellent fabric of their laws. The fundamental maxims of law and justice, among the most enlightened nations now existing are borrowed from the law of Moses. And whoever will examine the civil government of the Hebrews, will perceive, that their maxims of policy were drawn with consummate wisdom.* That Moses was a general, a law-giver, and a writer among the Hebrews, is as evident, as that Solon, Lycurgus, or Julius Cesar sustained some of the same offices in their respective countries. Whoever can believe that Homer wrote an epic poem; Demosthenes, orations; Cesar, commentaries; or Horace, odes, must also, if he is candid, believe that the books of Moses are genuine.

Let us now inquire, whether Moses had any means of coming to the knowledge of things, which took place before his day, besides those of immediate inspiration. He certainly had, for he was skilled in all the learning of the Egyptians, in his time the most learned of all nations.

* See Lowman on the civil government of the Hebrews.

Moses was the son of Amram, the son of Kohath, the son of Levi. Shem, the son of Noah, lived near to the birth of Jacob; and Methusaleh had lived many years cotemporary with Adam, and also many years with Shem. It will hence follow, that Adam conversed with Methusaleh—he, with Shem—Shem, with Isaac; and Moses might have seen persons, who had conversed with Isaac.

Moses, therefore, must have possessed peculiar advantages, to know whatever could be known, orally, of ancient history. And who does not know the accuracy, with which many nations preserve historic facts, and the facility, with which they transmit them to posterity, without alphabetic writing? Admitting, therefore, the origin of the human race to have been as Moses relates, it is highly probable, that Moses, and others as well as he, must have had very complete information respecting Adam and Eve—their transgression—the murder of Abel—the punishment of Cain—the translation of Enoch—the progress of art, and of vice, before the flood—the building of the ark—the flood, and the re-peopling of the earth, by Noah and his sons; especially, when we add to other considerations, the great age, to which they lived before the flood.

The longevity of the antediluvians is asserted by many of the heathen writers of antiquity. It was their opinion, that the human race, while uncorrupted by vice, lived long; but when they provoked the gods by their wickedness, diseases were sent, and their lives cut short.

Adam, indeed, could have learned nothing of what took place before his creation, but by special revelation. But what is there unreasonable in the idea, that the Almighty, when he had created man, should reveal himself to him, and give him some intimations concerning the work of creation and providence? We answer, Nothing. The reverse would be unreasonable, and utterly inconsistent with the wisdom and goodness of God. For Almighty power to give existence to man, to immure him in darkness, to leave him to explore his way to the discovery of his own origin, duty and destiny, and to find out the existence and perfections of the first cause, would be utterly inconsistent with divine benevolence.

Considering man either in his original or fallen state, there is nothing unreasonable in the idea of God's revealing himself to him in a direct and special manner. Had man never fallen, who can doubt, that God would have

given him various, continual and most glorious manifestations? By these, he would have been ennobled and perfected in his moral faculties, till he attained the high excellence of angelic natures. Even in his depraved and fallen state, it was not inconsistent with the Father of mercies to begin, to carry on, and to complete, his benevolent designs toward him, by an immediate revelation of himself.

We may then demand, why are some philosophers, so opposed to the doctrine of a special revelation of God to mankind? Is not the language of their hearts, *Depart from us, O Lord, we desire not the knowledge of thy ways?*

Since it cannot be denied, that man is a reasonable being—that he is a moral agent, capable of virtue and vice, and that as such, he is a proper subject of government, neither can it be denied, that his highest felicity must forever depend on his progress in knowledge and virtue. That he should, therefore, come to the knowledge of a being of infinite power, wisdom and goodness, seems indispensable to his happiness. Hence, it seems to be a thing highly desirable in itself, and necessary to man's eternal well-being, that God should reveal himself to man, in ways far more direct and special, than he has in the works of nature.

When God's character and perfections are once discovered, we then can easily perceive traces of them in his works; but if God had never revealed himself to man in any special way, it is extremely doubtful, whether the mind of man ever would have reached the first cause, even in conjecture. We often hear it observed, that pure Deism is the most rational and self-consistent of all religions. But it should be remembered, that the idea even of that one God, of which pure Deism boasts, is obtained from divine revelation.

Could we see what system of theology the mind of man would frame, without any aid from immediate revelation, we should see a scheme far different from the boasted *true* or *pure* Deism. Such a scheme may indeed be seen in the religion of some of the inhabitants of Africa and the islands, who, it is said, have not the least idea of a Supreme Being, care nothing about futurity, and live without law or government.* *Pure* Deism, therefore, would prove to be a scheme of religion without the idea of a God; a scheme,

* See Locke on the Human Understanding—vol. i. lib. i. p. 64, 65.

which probably the pure Deist must either adopt, or look for the character of the God whom he adores, in special revelation. It will hence follow, that pure Deism, divested of any aid from revelation, will prove to be *Atheism*. Indeed we may safely assert, that, had not God made a supernatural revelation of himself to man, the whole human race would have been Atheists and savages.

The common objection to the doctrine of creation, as taught by Moses, is, that it is impossible to conceive, how God could create all things out of nothing. We have no difficulty in conceiving, that God is a being of almighty power; yet we have no conception of the manner, in which he exerts his power, even in any case. Upon a careful examination of this matter, it will appear, that the objection before us operates equally against all events, as effects of divine power. It simply amounts to this; we cannot conceive *how* divine power operates. Shall we therefore deny that it operates at all?

The mighty chain of effects and causes, although it begins with the great first Cause, consists of innumerable links. Many effects in their turn, become causes, and produce other effects; whence, generally speaking, all effects are in their turn causes; and all causes, excepting One, are effects. In this infinitely wide field of causes, there seems to obtain one important distinction. All these multifarious, and perpetually operating causes, are either intelligent and designing, or incogitative and physical. These two classes of causes are widely different in their nature, and equally so in their effects. So far as our observations can extend, proportion, arrangement, beauty and excellency, whenever they are effects, are invariably and immediately from intelligent and designing causes. Unintelligent; incogitative causes, never produce order, proportion, beauty or excellency. Homer could write an excellent poem; but a rock, if conveyed to the top of a mountain, and set rolling down, will dash and prostrate all before it. There will be nothing like order or elegance in its path. Sir Christopher Wren, or Inigo Jones, could build a glorious palace; but a whirlwind, a torrent or an earthquake, though never known to erect the smallest building, have been known to throw down and demolish many. Where agents of that nature have been operating for ages, so far from ever effecting any thing beautiful or useful, the disorders of such a place will only increase.

We are therefore taught by reason and experience, that the order, beauty and magnificence of the visible universe, are the effects of an intelligent, designing cause. The conclusion is irresistible, that there must be a being, who does produce such effects. We see enough of his power and wisdom displayed, to afford conviction that he *can* create. There seems nothing absurd or extravagant in the idea, that a being of Almighty power, can create out of nothing. It is not derogating from the respect due to God, to say that he cannot work contradictions; that he cannot cause two and two to be five; that he cannot cause a thing to be, and not to be, at the same time; but that he can cause a thing to be at one time, and not to be at another, involves no absurdity. Let it be supposed, that there was a time, when no creature existed. Will the objector say, that the eternal God could not give existence to creatures? Will he say, that God could not create both matter and mind? An artist, indeed, cannot make a watch without materials, and tools to work with. He must have the steel, the silver, the brass, the chrystal, &c. Must therefore, the infinite Deity have pre-existing materials, in order to make a world? If so, he is but an artist of superior skill, but of limited powers.

Those therefore, who object to the idea of absolute creation as absurd, should tell wherein that absurdity consists. If they deny a distinction between matter and mind, and hold matter to be eternal and uncreated, it will come to this, that there is nothing but matter, and nothing but Deity; that all things are God; or that there is no mind, no creation, no God. If there be any such thing as mind in creatures, it is a conscious, thinking principle or being. But all rational creatures, with whom we are acquainted, know perfectly well, that their consciousness has not been eternal, but had a very recent beginning. But if minds have a beginning, we are compelled to grant, that they are created. Is it more difficult to create matter, than mind? It is presumed that no modest, sensible man will affirm, that matter and mind cannot be created, without he is previously able to tell us what matter and mind are. When the philosopher can go so far as to prove from the nature of a being, that God Almighty could not have created it, we will subscribe to his scheme; but if his weightiest argument be found in his acknowledged ignorance, he is liable to the charge of inconsistency. For, as on the

one hand, there is nothing in the known nature of things, which militates against the idea of their being created, so on the other, the being and perfections of God are proofs, that he can create, and all the phenomena of nature corroborate the same. And it will be found that all those strong doubts respecting the possibility of creation, are grounded on doubts of the being and perfection of God. But should the objection before us, be allowed to have all its full weight, i. e. that we cannot at all, conceive how God can create out of nothing; will it thence be safe to conclude, that he did not in fact create? Can we conceive how divine power, or indeed any other power, is applied to cause the revolution of the planets? Yet by some power or other, their revolution is effected. Can we conceive how the energy of the divine will operates in the production of any one event? or, in short, can we conceive how any one cause ever produces any effect? Has the divine will, therefore, no energy? And is there no such thing as cause and effect? Can we conceive how God can be omnipresent? Is he therefore, not omnipresent? In short, to come nearer home, can I conceive, how the motion of the pen, now in my hand, is connected with my volition, and caused by it? No more than I can conceive how God could create the universe. Yet my pen does move, and that motion is connected with, and caused by, my volition.

If our conceptions must be the rule and the limit of our belief, we shall directly plunge into scepticism, and shall never stop short of Atheism. The objection before us, therefore, is utterly void of weight, and evidently of atheistical tendency.

Since, therefore, the Mosaic history, in the doctrine of creation, asserts nothing repugnant to reason, nor yet to the phenomena of nature—since all existing considerations rather favor, than discountenance that doctrine—since that history, in general, is corroborated by collateral testimonies, as far as they exist, and by the genuine characters of reality, truth and reason, where they do not; it challenges belief and respect, as the highest, most unquestionable and valuable of all ancient authorities.

CHAPTER XV.

CAUSES WHICH HAVE OPERATED TO PLUNGE ANCIENT HISTORY INTO DARKNESS.

SEVERAL events, both in ancient and modern times, have conspired to plunge the history of ancient nations into darkness. Those events have cast a veil of obscurity over such parts, as have reached our times, and have unfortunately buried others in oblivion. In the first class of those events, may be ranked the destruction of libraries. The famous library of Alexandria, founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, about 284 years before the Christian era, consisted of vast collections of records, histories, tracts, poems and works of taste. This immense repository of ancient science, had been replenishing for several centuries. Here was amassed every thing that was curious, valuable, or elegant, among literary productions, since the days of Memnon, including, doubtless, all the ancient tales and genealogies, handed down by oral tradition, before the invention of letters. This library was destroyed in the burning of Alexandria, by Julius Cesar.

Here were doubtless many valuable originals utterly lost. Before the art of printing, and especially in ancient times, there were but few books in the world; no work of magnitude could be obtained, but at a great expense. The Alexandrian library might have comprised half the books in the world, and very many of them with scarcely a duplicate existing. The loss was reckoned at 400,000 volumes. The institution was however, revived, and a still greater collection made, which was enriched by the noble productions of the Augustan age. This flourished till the seventh century of the Christian era, when it was burned by the Saracens, who used the books for common fuel. There perished 700,000 volumes.

We may next notice the extinction of smaller libraries, and institutions for promoting science. The loss of these, though less ostensible, yet, on account of their numbers, and dispersion through the most enlightened nations, by imperceptible degrees beclouded the skies, and served to overwhelm the days of antiquity in darkness. The rage of barbarians, in every age, has been levelled at the productions of art and genius, which it is their pride and

pleasure to destroy. When but few copies of the most valuable works were extant, the burning of a single house, might bury in oblivion the annals of a nation. Nor yet is the impervious gloom, with which many parts of ancient history are covered, chargeable wholly on savages. In the destruction of Memphis, Persepolis, Babylon, Nineveh, Tyre, Jerusalem, Carthage and Corinth, many valuable productions of genius and learning were forever lost. Who can read of the sack of Corinth, without emotions of unspeakable regret? There the most elegant statues and pictures, the finest productions of Greece in her meridian, were dashed in the streets, crushed in the general wreck, and thrown into the flames. And after the immense capital of the Roman empire had been enriched, ornamented and aggrandized by all, that had escaped the wars of two thousand years, it was destined to be plundered from time to time, and fall a prey to the barbarians, over whom it had triumphed; so that in the reign of Justinian, it was besieged and taken five times in the space of twenty years.

The decline of the Roman empire, and its subversion by the northern nations of Europe, have thrown between us and ancient times, a wide and dreary vale of darkness, through which only a few of the stronger lights of history gleam upon our times. Instead of wondering that there is so *little*, it is wonderful, indeed, that so *much* has escaped the gulf of oblivion—that so many inestimable jewels have been dug from the tombs of empires, and that so many noble monuments of literature have been able to resist the waste of ages, and the shock of revolutions.

The Roman empire first experienced a total loss of public virtue. Inseparably connected with that, was the loss of its liberties, and the elevation to the imperial throne of a succession of the most execrable monsters of vice, that ever swayed the sceptre. It long survived its orators, poets, historians and philosophers; it long survived its virtue, integrity and martial spirit. During so general a decay of intelligence, genius, and virtue, events must have arisen highly prejudicial to ancient literature, which we have no means of tracing. All the paths of science were overrun and entangled with unintelligible scholastic jargon; and the Christian religion itself, which had, by the purity and simplicity of its doctrines and morals, prevailed and triumphed through the empire, at length became loaded with useless ceremony, and ridiculous superstition.

In a word, the fall of the ancient Greeks and Romans, the rage of barbarians, a series of great revolutions, and the lapse of numerous ages, have conspired with numberless events of less magnitude, to lessen our means of the knowledge of ancient history. But many stupendous works of art and literary productions have made their way through all these storms, have neither been worn out by the wheel of revolving ages, cancelled by the restless malice of man, nor crushed in the general wreck of states and empires.

To trace out these valuable remains, is a melancholy, though a pleasing, useful and important work. To accomplish that work, we are compelled to examine a voluminous comment on the depravity of our species; we are led to consider man, when under the reign of his passions, as an object of extreme deformity and disgust. In pursuing those interesting discoveries, we are guided by a few scattered lights, which burn with strong lustre; we must make wide and solitary excursions among the tombs of heroes, sages, empires and revolutions. There we shall see displayed the greatest efforts of genius, and the strongest powers of philosophy; and there we shall see, that all human institutions, however flourishing they may appear for a while, must at length fade.

CHAPTER XVI.

SOURCES, WHENCE THE KNOWLEDGE OF ANCIENT HISTORY IS DRAWN. "

IT is upwards of 3600 years since Memnon, the Egyptian, invented the letters of the alphabet; about three centuries after which, they were introduced by Cadmus into Greece.*

* Great and respectable authorities advocate the opinion, that alphabetical writing was not a human invention, but wholly a matter of immediate inspiration. Neither their arguments, nor the answers to them, can be here inserted. Much may be said on both sides of this question. We shall only observe, that it seems paying a useless compliment to revelation, miracle, inspiration, or any kind of supernatural agency, to be ready to call in their aid, in matters, where they are not necessary, or to ascribe to them, as causes, things which may be easily accounted for without them. Besides, it is contrary to a known rule of philosophy, which forbids us to inquire for more causes of a thing, than are sufficient to explain its phenomena. There

To perpetuate the memory of events, and to convey ideas to persons absent, invention first suggested the use of figures, or images of things intended. When these were found inadequate, symbols, emblematic of more complex ideas, were adopted. But the defect of these, in expressing combinations and abstract ideas, must have soon appeared; and was probably followed by the discovery, that a certain combination of arbitrary marks, might be adapted to the expression of all articulate sounds. This was doubtless the noblest of all inventions, as it has proved a most wonderful means of improving the human mind. It not only answered the highest expectations of its inventor, but doubtless far exceeded all conjecture; as it proved to be the father of all the liberal arts and sciences, and has continued the widening-source of knowledge, happiness and admiration, to every age.

The most ancient of authentic historians, with whom we are acquainted, is Moses. He was born in Egypt 1571 years before Christ, at a time, as we have already remarked, when Egypt was the most enlightened of all nations. He, being the adopted son of Pharaoh's daughter, was of course educated in all their learning. He was born 777 years after the flood, 289 after Ashur founded the Assyrian empire, and 277 years after the death of Shem.

When Moses wrote, alphabetic writing had been known in Egypt several centuries; and, if we consider the rapid improvements, which that very ingenious people made in the art and science, we shall see cause to believe that, in Moses' time, they had made very considerable progress. Nor were the Egyptians the only nation, who improved in science at that early period. The Chaldeans or Assyrians were among the first cultivators of the sciences, particularly astronomy; so that, as we have already noted, their astronomical observations began, at least nineteen hundred years before the time of Alexander.

The longevity of the ancient nations, which did not wholly cease, till some time after the flood; the simplicity of their modes of life; their being planted in luxuriant regions of health and plenty, and their genius and spirit of

is not only a total want of evidence, that an alphabet was given by inspiration, but, like all other arts, we seem fully authorized to ascribe it to the progress of invention and discovery. Many things in the history of literature, both ancient and modern, strongly corroborate this opinion.

enterprise, will account for the rapidity of their improvements and population ; so that it will be no matter of surprise, if we find, within seven hundred years after the deluge, the eastern continent generally peopled—if we find populous cities, great nations and extensive empires.

At the time already mentioned, Moses appeared in Egypt, a man whom divine endowments, genius and learning, as well as the elevated rank, to which he was raised by adoption, and which he ornamented by his merits, had fitted for an important sphere of action, as law-giver, general, prophet and historian. To what was said in a former chapter, concerning Moses' advantages in writing the history he wrote, we shall here only add, that as alphabetic writing, and of course, something of records, might have been within forty years of the death of Shem, who had conversed long with Methusaleh, and he with Adam, we cannot doubt, that Moses had not only the most ancient, but the most correct, information concerning the things, found in history.

The history written by Moses, contains nothing but what might be looked for in the dictates of a being of infinite wisdom ; and the nature and character of the five books, called the *Pentateuch*, exhibit as clear a proof of divine inspiration, as the frame of the heavens and earth do, of divine workmanship ; and that blindness must be great, which does not perceive them to be so. Indeed, it will be found to be a truth, that those, who question the one, will also doubt the other.

In this place, we cannot avoid noticing the remark of an elegant historian, but who, at times, seems capable of assertions equally bold, impious and profane.* He asserts, that the God of Moses delighted in blood and cruelty. Will that writer deny the universality of God's providence ? Will he affirm, that God Almighty delights in cruelty and blood ? It will be readily granted, that the nations of Canaan, whom Moses and Joshua invaded, had never injured the Hebrews. But had the governor of the universe no right to punish them for their wickedness, by what instruments he pleased ? Will that writer affirm, that the Canaanites were an innocent, virtuous people, not deserving what they suffered ? It was far otherwise ; and so enormous were their crimes, that the righteous God of providence saw fit to extirpate them

* Russel's Ancient Europe.

from the earth; to which work, he commissioned the Israelites, and made them the executioners of his wrath and vengeance. Were they better than the people of Lisbon, Lima, or Portugal, who perished by earthquakes? or was the destruction of the latter more providential than theirs? or is it essential to justice, that the criminal should always suffer by the hand of the injured person? Even under the best governments, criminals always suffer by those, whom they never injured. It is the province of every good government to provide its own executioners; and they are often persons, who have no knowledge of the criminal. It was in this way God punished the people of Canaan. And who knows the extent of their desert? who can tell what privileges they had abused?—how they trampled equally on divine justice and mercy, and insulted the threatenings, as well as the patience, of their Creator? The impious assertion, just noticed, was one of the most blasphemous, which ever escaped the mouth of man. For “as I live, saith the Lord God, I have no pleasure in the death of the wicked, but that the wicked turn from his way and live.” Does the general course of divine Providence justify our author’s assertion? or rather does it not exhibit the clearest proof, that God is long-suffering, slow to anger, and abundant in goodness and mercy?

Next to Moses, the course of whose history is traced by Josephus, a Jewish writer of the Augustan age, is Herodotus, a Greek historian, who is justly called the father of history. He flourished in the 87th Olympiad, 431 years before Christ. He was of the city of Halicarnassus, a maritime city of Caria, a colony of the Asiatic Greeks. He wrote about a century before Alexander the Great conquered Asia, while the Persian empire was still in its strength, while Egypt remained the august seat of learning, near the sacking of Rome by Brennus, and while the Grecian republics were yet free, virtuous and powerful.

Herodotus had travelled much in Western Asia—had visited the venerable seats of the ancient empires. His general history was divided into nine books. When he read his history to the learned assembly of Greece, they gave to his books the names of the nine Muses, as a testimony of the high sense they entertained of their superlative merit. He wrote in the Ionic dialect.

Xenophon, a Greek historian, wrote about half a century after Herodotus. He had commanded an army in Persia,

in the time of the younger Cyrus ; and had conducted the retreat of ten thousand Greeks from the heart of the Persian empire ; an event much celebrated in ancient history. The style of Xenophon is simple, nervous and elegant ; and it can scarcely be doubted, that something of the glory of the great Cyrus, has been owing to his pen.

The Iliad of Homer is a source of abundant information. Several cities in ancient Greece, claim the honor of giving him birth. He wrote 907 years before the Christian era. From his poems, we may learn the manners and customs of his time ; the modes of life, and of making war ; and the notions of honor, morality, religion and government, which prevailed.

The genius of Homer was strong and rapid. To a great extent of knowledge, he added equal purity and elegance of taste. His notions of character were just, vivid and distinguishing ; so that, as is said of another ancient writer, " his description is vision." Ossian, the Scottish bard, resembled, if not excelled, him in strength and boldness of imagination. While Virgil is compared to the meanders of a majestic river through a rich and fruitful land, Homer is compared to a stroke of lightning, which in a moment dazzles, astonishes, and is past.

Homer's Iliad will ever be considered an astonishing display of genius ; but of that kind of genius, however, which is rather terrible than lovely. The characters, which he drew, fully evince the truth of this remark.

A character more unlovely, than that of Achilles, cannot well be imagined. Indeed, strength and courage are the favorite virtues of Homer ; under whose burning pen, they often degenerate into cruelty, barbarity and revenge. War, blood and desolation, form the prominent features of the Iliad ; and render it, of all books, the most suitable pocket companion for Alexander the Great.

Thucydides, Polybius, Diodorus Siculus, Dionysius of Halicarnassus, and many other writers before the Christian era ; and, about that time and a little after, Livy, Pliny, Tacitus, Suetonius, Plutarch and others ; and among the Roman writers also, the names of Justin, Sallust, Virgil, and Cicero, should be noticed. These writers, although they did not all write history, yet all contributed more or less, to perpetuate the important transactions of their times. To the labors of these men, the world is indebted for most of what is known of ancient history.

Many of the writings of Cicero, have reached our times ; but there is reason to believe, that some of his most excellent productions are lost. Cicero's works have been more fortunate, than those of most of his predecessors or contemporaries. It is thought, that the ancients excelled the moderns in genius. However this might be, it can scarcely be doubted, that they excelled in what is of more value than genius, even industry.

There is another source, from whence some knowledge of antiquity is obtained ; I mean the ruins of those amazing structures, towers, palaces and temples, which are scattered in many parts of Europe, Asia and Africa. This, indeed, would have been a much more fruitful source of knowledge, but for the repeated and too successful efforts of barbarians and hostile armies, to strip them of their ornaments, to tarnish their beauties, and to erase their inscriptions. These monuments of ancient power, magnificence and splendor, are scattered along the coast of the Mediterranean, on the northern shores of Africa, and indeed in many other parts of the ancient world. One would scarcely believe, after knowing the present wretched state of Africa, that it was once reckoned the highest state of luxury to reside there—that, as a residence, it was preferred to France, or Spain, or Italy;* and that even Italy itself drew its corn from the fruitful fields of Africa.† Egypt and Carthage were once great and flourishing empires. The former disputed with the Assyrians and Greeks, and the latter with the Romans, for supremacy. The pyramids of Egypt, as they are the oldest monuments of ancient greatness, so they are certainly the most stupendous monuments of patient and persevering labor. From the earliest ages of history, they have stood, and have defied the waste of time, and the desolations of war. To demolish the pyramids, would require more than the strength of a few individuals, and more than the perseverance of a barbarian army. Therefore they stand, and will probably stand for numerous ages to come. The reader may see, in Thompson's, Volney's, and Bruce's travels, a particular account of the remains of antiquity in Syria, Egypt and some other parts.

The ancient monuments, found in Asia and Europe, are indicative of far greater perfection of taste and sublimity

* The Africa so delightful to the ancients, was but a small part of the quarter of the world, now known by that name.—*Ed.*

† "Quidquid de Libycis veritur areis."—*Horace.*

of design, than those already mentioned. To mere extension of parts, the Greeks added proportion. Materials of the finest quality, wrought with the utmost skill into buildings of noble form, majestic size, and elegant proportion, gave them an air of sublimity, probably never to be excelled. But by how much these buildings displayed genius and science, by so much were they the more exposed to the savage fury of war. A few of them have escaped, which make report to us of the astonishing genius of the ancients, which we never could have obtained from books. What must Athens have been in the days of Pericles!

The ruins of Persepolis, Palmyra, and Balbec, of which all travellers, who have seen them, speak with admiration and amazement, tell us more than we could learn from volumes, concerning the opulence, power and genius of their builders, and, of the splendor and glory of their times. In all parts of Greece and Italy, and even co-extensive with the power of the ancient Romans, the remains of their grandeur may be seen in causeways, bridges, camps, castles, walls, temples and monuments.

The celebrated Arundelian marbles, the numerous inscriptions, the remains of statues, medals and paintings, which have been discovered in vaults, or dug from ruins, or which have been preserved in sequestered places, or found by accident, increase the body of evidence, cast a certain light on various parts of history, and determine many chronological questions of importance.

These evidences of antiquity, standing singly, would lose much of their weight; but, combined, they substantiate and confirm each other; and, considered in their various connections and relations, there no longer remains a doubt of their veracity. Their combined testimonies give strength to each other singly, and in their sum they form a body of evidence, as clear and irresistible, as any case of ocular demonstration. It will be found as difficult to doubt, whether Alexander was king of Macedon, and conquered Persia, as whether George Washington was general and president in America.*

* In this work, we have followed one or another of the preceding authors, as occasion served, or have taken their accounts indirectly through the hands of modern writers; among which we have consulted more particularly the following, viz. Rollin's Ancient History, Russell's Ancient Europe, Gillies' Greece, Travels of Anacharsis, Prideaux's Connection, Bedford's Chronology, the Encyclopedia, Kennett's Roman Antiquities, Goldsmith's Abridgment of Roman History.

CHRONOLOGY.

The word *chronology* is derived from two Greek words, *chronos*, time, and *logos*, discourse, or science. It may be defined, *the science of time*. Its object is to ascertain the times, when the most important events took place.

The principal use of Chronology, as well as of Geography, is to aid in understanding and applying history. And so important for this object, are these sciences, that they have been well represented, as *the two eyes of history*; or rather, of the historian. Without the use of these, the whole fabric of history must appear but a vast mass of chaos, darkness and confusion. Within a few years, great attention has been paid to the study of geography. How important, that this improvement in the course of education, should be followed by correspondent attention to chronology. Without this, "effects will often be placed before their causes; cotemporary characters and events disjoined; actions, having no relation to each other, confounded; and much of the pleasure and benefit, which history ought to impart, will be lost."

Considering the importance of chronology, it is deeply to be regretted, that in its nature, it is so peculiarly dry and uninteresting—that of all branches of literature, the knowledge of dates is most hard to gain, most easy to be lost. "Of all things, there is the most difficulty in retaining numbers. They are like grains of sand, which will not cohere in the order, in which we place them." This is probably the principal reason, that chronology has been so neglected by most readers of history—that so few can tell, within hundreds of years, when Solon lived, or when Rome fell. If any method could be devised to render the acquisition more pleasant, more easy, more permanent, it must confer an illustrious benefit upon the literary world. Such a method *has* been devised. It is the work of the ingenious Dr. Grey. This method, with some important improvements, I shall endeavor to exhibit.

The grand advantage of Grey's method consists in the great facility of remembering a word, compared with the difficulty of remembering a naked number. There is no doubt, that most persons would find it easier to treasure up in their minds, 100 words, though uncouth and barbarous, than

to fix a dozen dates, without artificial help. If there are any great exceptions to this remark, they are perhaps monstrous minds, that can learn one thing as easily as another, and on that account, are by no means to be envied. A word, then, must be substituted for a number, or must be so changed, as to represent a date. In order for this, a letter must be made to represent a figure; and as we cannot utter several consonants together without vowels, nor conveniently pronounce several vowels together without consonants, it is necessary that each figure should be represented by a vowel or diphthong, and also, by a consonant. These should be so adapted, as to be most easily learned and retained. It will be readily perceived, that the vowels *a, e, i, o, u*, should represent the figures, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. These are learned at once, and can hardly be forgotten, after one minute's attention. For the other five, diphthongs must be used. As *a* stands for 1 and *u* for 5, these united may represent 6, *au*, therefore, is put for 6; and for a similar reason *oi* for 7, *oo* for 8, and *ou* for 9; *ai* stands for cypher or zero, without any particular reason. Now, for the consonants. The first consonant justly claims the representation of the first figure, 1. As *c* has generally the same sound, as *k* or *s*, it is omitted. The next letter is *d*, and may stand for 2. Those who know a very little of Latin, may remember, that it is the initial of *duo*, from which the word *two* is derived. *T*, stands for 3, as being the initial of the word *three*. For the same reason, *f* stands for 4. *V*, being the Roman numeral, for five, represents 5. *L*, the Roman numeral for 50 is also used for 5, or before another letter, for 50. The initial of *six* is *s*. There is perhaps no other letter, that in common chirography, so much resembles 7, as *p*. *K* is made to stand for 8, for a Greek reason, (*okto*) as no one occurs in English; *n* is the initial of 9; and last of all, we take *z* to represent zero. The nine digits and the zero, then, are represented as follows,

<i>a</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>au</i>	<i>oi</i>	<i>oo</i>	<i>ou</i>	<i>ai</i>
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
<i>b</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>v</i> or <i>l</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>z</i>

Now, let the reader study these, three minutes and see, if he cannot write down the whole from memory. *G* is used for two zeros. To express the date of the foundation

of Rome, we drop the final *e*, and add the letters *p, u, t*, representing 7, 5, 3. Joining these, the word *Romput* is formed, indicating, that Rome was founded 753 years before Christ. It is very easy to remember, in almost every case, whether a date is before Christ, or after. It is also easy, without artificial aid, to remember the time of any event, within 1000 years. Indeed if persons do not gain such an acquaintance with the general course of events, as to be able to do this, without special effort, there will, perhaps, be no advantage in their knowing the exact time of any event. This method of artificial memory is not designed to supersede, but rather, to facilitate and improve attention to dates in the common way. Letters are not generally used, therefore, to represent thousands. Thus for the date of the fall of the Eastern Roman Empire, which took place, A. D. 1453, we use *Romfut*, instead of *Romafut*. For the sake of improving the sound of the word, however, the *a* or *b*, representing 1000, is sometimes inserted. Thus, to express the time of queen Anne's accession, we adopt *Annapaid* (1702) rather than *Annpaid* (702); and *Gorfakez* for that of George IV. rather than *Gorfkez*; the *f* being used to denote IV.

As every figure is denoted by more than one letter, we may always have a choice of letters in chronologising words. This may be very convenient, in order to form the words in the most agreeable manner, and to adopt them, so as to express any particular ideas, to aid in recollecting the words and the ideas. Thus, if we know, that Rome *put* down and subjugated all other nations, we can more easily remember the word *Romput*; and those who know the word, will more easily remember the fact; and those, who know neither, will more easily remember both, than either alone. In this case, they will serve as mutual props, to sustain each other. After learning *Romput*, it will be easy to learn *Romfut* from the similarity of sound.

It may be useful to give a few more examples, to familiarise and facilitate the use and application of this method of chronology, and to show the advantage of particular associations. We will take the English sovereigns from Henry VII. to William III. who reigned through the most interesting and instructive period of the British history. With this period, every American and every lover of civil and religious liberty, ought to be acquainted. Henry VII. began to reign A. D. 1485, and his name may be chronolo-

gised *Henroifool*, the *oi* signifying VII. The chronological part may be considered as a contraction for *royal fool*. Though wise in some respects, yet did he not seem to be a *fool* to make such efforts, and practise such extortion, for the accumulation of wealth, to be squandered away by such a *vain*, vile, profligate, obstinate, arbitrary, cruel, persecuting wretch, as his son and successor, Henry VIII?

Henry VIII. ascended the throne, 1509—*Henroivain*. It is doubtful, whether a vainer mortal ever lived. There is reason to believe, that he was *vain* of his birth, his beauty, his accomplishments, his genius, his learning, his wisdom, his riches, his pomp, his power, his fame, and even of his religion. His successor was his son,

Edward VI.—*Edsavop*. This pious and excellent prince *saved* the nation from the persecutions of Popery, and made a glorious *opposition* to the Man of Sin. *Edsavop* was succeeded by his sister, the

Bloody Mary, the Papist, the bigot. She insidiously promised to rule by the laws of Edward; but she soon became a horrid persecutor. Her *rule* gave the *lie* to her promise. We, therefore, call her *Maruli*. Her successor was her sister

Elizabeth, a decided Protestant. This was considered as good *luck* to England and to the Protestant world. She is, therefore, called *Elizaluk*. The next king was

James I.—*Jambasait*. He was succeeded by his son Charles I. He married Henrietta Mary, daughter of Henry IV. of France. To her, he was most ardently attached, and assiduously devoted. As she was a Papist, this connection was most unhappy in its consequences. It was undoubtedly one of the principal causes, that brought upon the nation, calamities innumerable, for more than 50 years. Must we not consider him as exceedingly *base*, thus to *sell* to a Papist, not only himself, but the welfare of his people? Well, then, is he entitled to the chronologised name, Charles *basel*. Perhaps it was no less *base* in his father to be willing, that Charles should marry a Papal, Spanish princess. Well, then, may James participate in the *base* part of the artificial name.

Charles II.—*Charlesdasauz*.

James II.—*Jamdasku*.

For the two latter, there is no particular association of facts. While James II. was urging forward his mad career of Papal tyranny, it was earnestly desired that William.

then prince of Orange, would *soon* come, and take the kingdom. In allusion to this, we may denominate him *William-take-soon*, and by contraction, *Wiltasoon*. This denotes the year, when William III. ascended the English throne.

The reader has doubtless felt induced to decipher the chronologised names, as he has proceeded, from *Edsavop* to *Wiltasoon*. If so, he has found the exercise easier and easier. Farther practice will make it easier still; and he will soon be able to chronologise names, as well, as understand those chronologised by others.

It may now be useful for the learner of history to commit to memory the above names, in their order. This will enable him to tell the commencement, the termination, and by calculation, the length of each reign, except that of Charles I. who was not succeeded by his son, till nearly twelve years after his death. Similar will be the result of chronologising and committing to memory, any list of kings in regular succession.

Classes may most conveniently learn the chronologised words, as they learn to spell other words; with this difference, that after spelling each word its chronological import may also be mentioned. The teacher may ask such questions, as the following. How do you spell *Henroifool*? and what date does it indicate?

When the name of a monarch is chronologised, it indicates the year of his accession; that of a private person, the year of his birth. Thus *Wicktef* indicates that Wickliffe was born 1324.*

The Imperial and Biographical Chart will probably be found still more interesting and beneficial, than the method above described; as it is much better suited to impress the eye. It presents to us, at once, a picture of the grand outline of history. We seem to see, in a moment, the chief kingdoms of the earth, and the most distinguished agents, that have been employed to scourge the world, or to bless mankind. With a glance, we see what nations and charac-

* This method of artificial memory may also be applied to Geography, at least to aid in remembering the latitude and longitude of countries. Thus *Egepti* denotes the mean latitude and longitude of Egypt; or the latitude and longitude of the centre of Egypt. It is not convenient, however, to express the minutes. But it may often be useful to know the mean latitude and longitude of Egypt or other country, within half a degree. This method is equally applicable to towns and cities.

ters were cotemporary, what successive, and how far any are removed from those, that precede, and those that follow them. By a more particular inspection, we may perceive and compare the most important dates, to a single year. How does it impress our minds with the principal revolutions, that have changed the face of the world. When we compare our own nation with others, here delineated, how young does it seem; what a child does it appear; and we are led to exclaim, *What manner of child shall this be!*]

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLES.

CHRONOLOGY OF THE PATRIARCHS.

	B. C.		B. C.
CREATION of Adam and Eve,	4004	Isaac marries Rebecca,	1856
Birth of Seth,	3874	Birth of Jacob,	1836
of Enos,	3769	of Reuben,	1771
of Cainan,	3679	of Simeon,	1770
of Mahalaleel	3609	of Levi,	1769
of Jared,	3544	of Judah,	1768
of Enoch,	3382	of Dan,	1767
of Methuselah,	3317	of Naphtali,	1765
of Lamech,	3130	of Gad,	1764
of Noah,	2948	of Asher,	1762
of Japheth,	2448	of Issacher,	1757
of Shem,	2445	of Zebulon,	1755
<i>The Flood</i> ,	2348	of Joseph,	1745
Birth of Arphaxad,	2345	Jacob returns to Canaan,	1739
of Salah,	2311	Birth of Benjamin,	1738
of Eber,	2281	Joseph sold into Egypt,	1728
of Peleg,	2247	becomes minister of Egypt,	1715
of Reu,	2217	Birth of Manasseh, son of Joseph,	1712
of Serug,	2185	Birth of Ephraim, son of Joseph,	1710
of Nahor,	2155	Seven years' famine begins,	1708
of Terah,	2126	Jacob and family go into Egypt,	1706
of Abram,	1996	Birth of Aaron, son of Amram,	1574
of Sarah,	1986	Birth of Moses, son of Amram,	1571
Call of Abram,	1926	Moses returns into Egypt, to deliver the Hebrews,	1491
Famine in Canaan—Abram and Lot go into Egypt,	1920		
Birth of Ishmael,	1910		
Sodom consumed,	1897		
Circumcision established,	1897		
Birth of Isaac,	1896		

GOVERNORS AND JUDGES* OF THE ISRAELITES.

	B. C.		B. C.
Moses,	1491	Othniel,	1405
Joshua,	1451	Ehud,	1325

* It is extremely difficult to trace the chronology of this period. Indeed most of the dates are still uncertain, and probably incorrect; but it is hoped, that none of them are very far from the truth.—*Ed.*

	B. C.		B. C.
Deborah and Barak,	1285	Ibzan,	1133
Gideon,	1245	Elon,	1126
Abimelech,	1236	Abdon,	1116
Tola,	1232	Samson born,	1157
Jair,	1179	Eli, Judge,	1181
Jephthah,	1139	Samuel, Judge,	1141

CHRONOLOGICAL REGAL TABLES.

KINGS OF THE JEWS.

	B. C.
1. Saul,	1095
2. David and Ishbosheth,	1055
3. David alone,	1047
4. Solomon,	1015
Division of the kingdom,	975

KINGS OF JUDAH.

Two Tribes.

1. Rehoboam,	975
2. Abijam,	958
3. Asa,	955
4. Jehosaphat,	914
5. Jehoram,	889
6. Ahaziah,	885
7. Athaliah,	884
8. Joash,	878
9. Amaziah,	839
10. Azariah, or Uzziah,	810
11. Jotham,	758
12. Ahaz,	742
13. Hezekiah,	727
14. Manasseh,	698
15. Amon,	643
16. Josiah,	640
17. Jehoahaz,	610
18. Jehoiakim,	610
19. Jehoiachin,	599
20. Zedekiah,	599
21. Nebuchadnezzar destroyed Jerusalem,	588

KINGS OF ISRAEL.

Ten Tribes.

	B. C.
1. Jeroboam I.	975
2. Nadab,	954
3. Baasha,	953
4. Elah,	930
5. Zimri,	929
6. Omri,	929
7. Ahab,	917
8. Ahaziah,	897
9. Jehoram,	896
10. Jehu,	884
11. Jehoahaz,	856
12. Joash,	841
13. Jeroboam II.	825
Interregnum, 11½ years,	784
14. Zachariah,	773
15. Shallum,	772
16. Menahem,	772
17. Pekahiah,	761
18. Pekah,	759
19. Hoshea,	730
Shalmanezzer, king of Assyria, destroyed the kingdom of Israel,	721

KINGS OF MEDIA

1. Dejoces,	709
2. Phraortes,	656
3. Cyaxares I.	634
Scythians driven out,	607

	B. C.		B. C.
4. Astyages,	595	11. Artaxerxes Ochus,	359
5. Cyaxares II. or Darius,	559	12. Arses,	338
—		13. Darius Codomanus,	336
KINGS OF ASSYRIA.		14. Alexander the Great,	331
1. Tiglath Pileser, called also Arbaces, and Ninus the younger,	747	15. Arideus, or Philip,	323
2. Shalmanezar,	728	—	
3. Sennacherib,	714	KINGS OF EGYPT.	
4. Esarhaddon,	706	Sabacon, or So,	727
Esarhaddon takes Babylon,	680	Sevechus,	719
—		Tirhakah,	705
KINGS OF BABYLON.		Anarchy,	687
1. Nabonassar, or Belesis,	747	Twelve confederate Princes,	685
2. Nadius,	733	Psammitichus,	670
3. Cincertus,	731	Necho,	616
4. Jugeus,	726	Psammis,	600
5. Merodac Baladan,	721	Apries, or Hophra,	594
6. Arcianus,	709	Amasis,	569
Interregnum,	704	Pamminitus,	525
7. Belibus,	702	Cambyzes conquers Egypt,	525
8. Apronadius,	699	Smerdis,	523
9. Regilibus,	693	Darius Hystaspes,	521
10. Mesessimordacus,	692	Xerxes the Great,	486
Interregnum,	688	Artaxerxes Longimanus,	465
11. Esarhaddon,	680	Xerxes II.	424
12. Saosduchinas,	667	Sogdianus,	424
13. Chyniladanus,	647	Ochus,	424
14. Nabopollaser,	625	Amyrteus,	413
15. Nebuchadnezzar,	606	Pausiris,	407
16. Evilmerodach,	561	Psammitichus II.	401
17. Neriglissar,	559	Nephereus,	395
18. Laborosoarchod,	559	Achoris,	389
19. Belshazzar,	555	Psammuthis,	376
Babylon taken by Cyrus,	539	Nectanebus,	375
—		Tachos,	363
KINGS OF THE PERSIANS.		Nectanebus,	361
1. Cyrus,	537	Ochus conquers Egypt	350
2. Cambyzes, or Ahasuerus,	529	Arses,	338
3. Smerdis, or Artaxerxes,	523	Darius Codomanus,	336
4. Darius I. son of Hystas- pes,	521	Alexander the Great,	331
5. Xerxes the Great,	486	Death of Alexander,	323
6. Artaxerxes Longimanus,	464	* * * * *	
7. Xerxes II.	424	Ptolemy Soter,	304
8. Sogdianus,	424	Ptolemy Philadelphus,	285
9. Ochus, or Darius Nothus,	424	Ptolemy Evergetes,	246
10. Artaxerxes Mnemon,	405	Ptolemy Philopater,	221
		Ptolemy Epiphanes,	204
		Ptolemy Philometer,	180
		Ptolemy Physcon, or Euer- getes II.	145

	B. C.
Ptolemy Soter II. or Lathyrus and Cleopatra,	117
Alexander and Cleopatra,	107
Lathyrus alone,	89
Berenice,	80
Alexander,	80
Ptolemy Auletes,	65
Ptolemy Dionysius, and Cleopatra,	51
Ptolemy the Younger, and Cleopatra,	47
Egypt becomes a Roman Province,	30

KINGS OF SYRIA.

Seleucus I. Nicator,	312
Antiochus I. Soter,	279
Antiochus II. Theus,	261
Seleucus II. Callinicus,	246
Seleucus III. Ceraunus,	225
Antiochus III. the Great,	222
Seleucus IV. Philopater,	186
Antiochus IV. Epiphanes,	175
Antiochus V. Eupator,	166
Demetrius I. Soter,	162
Alexander I. Balas,	150
Demetrius II. Nicator,	145
Antiochus VI. Theus,	144
Diodotus, or Tryphon,	143
Antiochus Sidetes,	139
Demetrius II. Nicator, re-established,	130
Alexander II. Zebina,	126
Seleucus V.	124
Antiochus VIII. Gripus,	123
Seleucus VI. Nicator,	97
Philip,	93
Tigranes,	83
Syria becomes a Roman province,	63

PRINCES OF JUDEA;

Called the Maccabees, or Asmonean Princes.

1. Judas Maccabeus great, great grandson of Asmoneus,	166
2. Jonathan,	160
3. Simon,	143
4. John Hyrcanus,	135

KINGS OF JUDEA.

	B. C.
1. Aristobulus,	107
2. Alexander Janneus,	106
3. Alexandra,	79
4. Hyrcanus,	70
5. Aristobulus,	70
Hyrcanus again,	63
6. Antigonus,	40
7. Herod the great,	37
8. Archelaus,	3
	A. C.
Judea becomes a Roman province,	8

KINGS OF ROME.

	B. C.
1. Romulus,	753
Romulus assassinated in the senate,	716
Interregnum of one year,	716
2. Numa Pompilius,	715
3. Tullus Hostilius,	672
4. Ancus Martius,	640
5. Tarquin, the Elder,	616
6. Servius Tullius,	578
7. Tarquin, the Proud,	534
Last king of the Romans, expelled.	

ROMAN EMPERORS.

Julius Cesar* becomes master of Rome,	48
Slain in the senate house,	44
Anarchy,	44
Augustus	36
	A. C.
Tiberius,	14
Caligula,	37
Claudius,	41
Nero,	54
Galba,	68
Otho,	69
Vitellius,	69
Vespasian,	70
Titus,	79

* Julius Cesar is sometimes, though not generally, reckoned among the Roman emperors.—Ed.

	A. C.		A. C.
Domitian,	81	Six emperors, Maximian,	
Nerva,	96	Constantine, Maxentius	
Trajan,	98	Galerius, Licinius and	
Adrian,	117	Maximin,	308
Antoninus Pius,	138	Constantine and Licinius, .	313
Marcus Aurelius Antoninus		Constantine alone,	324
and Lucius Verus,	161	Constantine II. Constant-	
Marcus Aurelius Antoninus		tius II. and Constans,	337
alone,	170	Constantius and Constans,	340
Commodus,	180	Constantius alone,	350
DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE.		Julian, the apostate,	361
Pertinax,	193	Jovian,	363
Julian, 66 days,	193	Valentinean and Valens,	364
Septimius Severus,	193	Division of the Empire,	364
Caricalla and Geta,	211		
Macrinus,	217	—	
Heliogabalus,	218	ROMAN EMPERORS OF	
Alexander Severus,	222	THE WEST.	
Maximin,	235	Valentinean,	364
Gordian the Elder and his		Gratian and Valentinean II.	375
son,	237	Valentinean II. and Maximus,	383
Maximus and Balbinus,	237	Valentinean II. alone	388
Gordian the Younger,	238	Eugenius,	392
Philip and son,	244	Honorius, †	395
Decius,	249	Valentinean III.	425
Hostilian, Gallus and Volu-		Petronius Maximus,	455
sian, his son,	251	Avitus,	455
Emilian, 3 months,	253	Interregnum,	456
Valerian and Gallienus his		Majorian,	457
son,	253	Severus,	461
Gallienus* alone,	260	Anthemius,	467
Claudius II.	268	Olybrius, 7 months,	472
Quintilius, 17 days,	270	Julius Nepos and Glycerius,	472
Aurelian,	270	Nepos alone,	473
Interregnum of 8 months	275	Interregnum,	474
Tacitus, 6 months,	275	Augustulus,	476
Florian, 3 months	275		
Probus,	276	—	
Carus,	282	KINGS OF ITALY.	
Carinus and Numerian,	283	Odoacer,	476
Carinus and Diocletian,	284	Theodoric,	493
Diocletian alone,	285	Amalasontha and Athalaric,	526
Diocletian and Maximian,	286	Theodatus,	534
Constantius and Galerius,	305	Vitiges,	536
Constantine, Galerius and		Interregnum	540
Maxentius,	306	Totila,	541

* During the reign of Gallienus, there were, in different parts of the empire, no less than 19 pretenders to the throne, who assumed the title of Emperor.—Ed.

† During the reign of Honorius, Rome was ravaged by the Goth, Alaric; and several usurpers in different parts of the empire were partially acknowledged.—Ed.

	A. C.		A. C.
Interregnum,	552	Leo VI. the Philosopher, . .	886
Tejas,	553	Alexander and Constantine	
End of the Gothic kingdom		VII.	912
in Italy,	553	Romanus I. Lecapenus, . .	919
ROMAN EMPERORS OF		Christopher, Stephen, and	
THE EAST.		Constantine VIII. were	
		successively made emper-	
Valens,	364	rors with their father Ro-	
Interregnum, 5 months, . .	378	manus.	
Theodosius, the Great, . .	379	Constantine VII. again, . .	945
Arcadius,	395	Romanus II.	959
Theodosius II.	408	Nicephorus II. Phocas, . .	963
Marcian,	450	John Zimisce,	969
Leo, the Great,	457	Basil II. and Constantine IX.	976
Leo II,	474	Constantine alone,	1025
Zeno,	474	Romanus III. Argyrus, . .	1028
Anastasius,	491	Michael IV. the Paphlago-	
Justin I.	518	nian,	1034
Justinean,	527	Michael V. Calaphates, . .	1041
Justin II.	565	Zoe and Theodore, 2 months,	1042
Justin II. and Tiberias II. .	574	Constantine X. Monoma-	
Tiberias II. alone.	578	chus,	1042
Maurice,	582	Theodora again,	1054
Phocas,	602	Michael VI. Stratoticus, . .	1056
Heraclius,	610	Isaac I. Comnenus,	1057
Heraclius, Contantine III.		Constantine XI. Ducas, . .	1059
and Heracleonas,	638	Eudocia,	1067
Constantine III. and Hera-		Romanus III. Diogenes, . .	1067
cleonas,	641	Michael VII. Andronicus I.	
Constans II.	641	and Constantine XII.	1071
Constantine IV. Progonatus,	668	Nicephorus III. Botan, . .	1078
Justinean II.	685	Alexius I. Comnenus,	1081
Leontius,	695	John Comnenus,	1118
Apsimar or Tiberias,	698	Manuel Comnenus,	1143
Justinean II. again,	705	Alexius II. Comnenus,	1180
Philip Bardanes,	711	Andronicus, Comnenus, . . .	1183
Anastasius II.	713	Isaac II. Angelus,	1185
Theodosius III.	716	Alexius Angelus, brother of	
Leo III. the Isaurian,	718	Isaac,	1195
Constantine V. Copronymus,	741	Isaac Angelus again, and his	
Leo IV.	775	son Alexius,	1203
Constantine VI. and Irene, . .	780	Mourzoufle,	1204
Irene alone,	792	Constantinople taken and	
Nicephorus I.	802	pillaged by the Latins,	1204
Stauracius, 2 months,	811	Baldwin I.	1204
Michael I.	811	Henry	1206
Leo V. the Armenian,	813	Peter de Courtenay,	1216
Michael II. the Stammerer,	820	Robert de Courtenay,	1219
Theophilus,	829	Baldwin II.	1228
Michael III.	842	Michael Paleologus,	1261
Basil I. the Macedonian,	867	Andronicus II. Paleologus,	1282

	A. C.
Interregnum,	614
Dagobert and Charibert,	628
Sigebert II. and Clovis II.	638
Childeric II. King of Austrasia,	654
Thierry III.	679
Pepin* Heristel, Mayer of the Palace, governs France 24 years,	690
Clovis III.	692
Childebert III.	695
Dagobert III.	711
Charles* Martel, son of Pepin, Mayer of the Palace and Duke of France, governs France about 26 years,	714
Childeric II.	716
Thierry IV.	720
Childeric III.	742

II. CARLOVINGIAN RACE.

Pepin, the Short, son of Charles Martel,	751
Charlemagne and Carloman,	768
Lewis, the Gentle, (Debonnaire,)	814
Charles, the Bald,	840
Lewis, the Stammerer,	877
Lewis III. and Carloman,	879
Charles, the Gross,	884
Eudes,	888
Charles III. the Simple,	898
Robert, Usurper,	922
Rodolph,	923
Lewis IV. the Stranger,	936
Lothaire,	954
Lewis V. the Lazy,	986

III. CAPETEAN RACE.

Hugh Capet, Usurper,	987
Robert,	996

* Pepin and his son were not styled kings, though they exercised supreme authority; nor were they of the Merovingian race,

	A. C.
Henry I.	1031
Philip I.	1060
Lewis VI. the Gross,	1108
Lewis VII.	1137
Philip II. Augustus,	1180
Lewis VIII. the Lion,	1223
Lewis IX. St. Lewis,	1226
Philip III. the Bold or Hardy,	1271
Philip IV. the Fair,	1285
Lewis X. Hutin,	1314
John I. 8 days,	1316
Philip V. the Long,	1316
Charles IV. the Fair,	1322

IV. HOUSE OF VALOIS.

Philip VI. of Valois,	1328
John II. the Good,	1350
Charles V. the Wise,	1364
Charles VI. the Beloved,	1380
Charles VII. the Victorious,	1422
Henry VI. of England, crowned at Paris, and partially acknowledged king of France,	1430
Lewis XI.	1461
Charles VIII.	1483
Lewis XII. Father of the People,	1498
Francis I. the Gentleman,	1515
Henry II.	1547
Francis II.	1559
Charles IX. the Bloody,	1560
Henry III.	1574

V. HOUSE OF BOURBON.

Henry IV. the Great,	1589
Lewis XIII. the Just,	1610
Lewis XIV. the Great,	1643
Lewis XV.	1715
Lewis XVI.	1774
————— deposed,	1792
————— executed,	1793

* * * * *

Napoleon Bonaparte, emperor,	1804
Lewis XVIII.	1814

	A. C.		A. C.
KINGS OF ENGLAND.		Edward II.	1307
		Edward III.	1327
		Richard II.	1377
<i>Saxons.</i>			
Egbert,	827	<hr/>	
Ethelwolf and Ethelstan,	838	II. HOUSE OF LANCASTER,	
Ethelbald and Ethelbert,	857	CALLED THE RED ROSE.	
Ethelbert alone,	860	Henry IV. Duke of Lancas-	
Ethelred I.	866	ter,	1399
Alfred,	872	Henry V.	1413
Edward, the Elder,	901	Henry VI.	1422
Ethelstan,	925	<hr/>	
Edmund I.	941	III. HOUSE OF YORK, CALL-	
Edred,	946	ED THE WHITE ROSE.	
Edwy,	955	Edward IV.	1461
Edgar,	959	Edward V.	1483
Edward II. the Martyr,	975	Richard III.	1483
Ethelred II.	978	Union of the two Roses,	1485
Edmund II. Ironside,	1016	<hr/>	
<i>Danes.</i>			
Canute,	1017	IV. HOUSE OF TUDOR.	
Harold I. Harefoot,	1035	Henry VII. Tudor,	1485
Hardicanute,	1039	Henry VIII.	1509
<i>Saxons.</i>			
Edward III. the Confessor,	1041	Edward VI. the Pious,	1547
Harold II.	1066	Mary I. the Bloody,	1553
<i>Normans.</i>			
William I. the Conqueror,	1066	Elizabeth,	1558
William II. Rufus,	1087	<hr/>	
Henry I. the Scholar,	1100	V. HOUSE OF STUART.	
Stephen,	1135	James I. Stuart,	1603
Matilda, or Maud, four		Charles I.	1625
months,	1141	— beheaded,	1649
Stephen again,	1141	Commonwealth,	1649
<hr/>			
I. HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET OR ANJOU.		Oliver Cromwell, Protector	
Henry II. Plantagenet,	1154	of the Commonwealth,	1653
Richard I. the Lion-hearted,	1189	Richard Cromwell, Protect-	
John, Lackland,	1199	or of the Commonwealth,	1658
Henry III.	1216	— forced to resign,	1659
Edward I. the English Jus-		Restoration of Monarchy,	1660
tinian,	1272	Charles II.	1660
		James II.	1685
		— deposed,*	1688
		William III. and Mary II.	1689

* Although the Parliament, in offering the crown to William III. pretended that James had *abdicated* the government, yet Hume, Smollet and Goldsmith are unquestionably correct in considering James as having been *deposed*.—Ed.

	A. C.		A. C.
William alone,	1694	Peter III.	1762
Anne, daughter of James II.	1702	Catharine II. the Great, .	1763
—		Paul,	1796
		Alexander,	1801

VI. HOUSE OF HANOVER.

George I.	1714
George II.	1727
George III.	1760
George IV.	1820

CZARS OR EMPERORS AND
EMPRESSES OF RUSSIA,
FROM PETER THE
GREAT.

Peter I. Alexiowitz, the Great, and Iwan V.	1682
Peter alone,	1696
Catharine I. widow of Peter,	1725
Peter II.	1727
Anne Ivanovna,	1730
Iwan or John VI.	1740
Elizabeth Petrovna, daugh- ter of Peter the Great, .	1741

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNI-
TED STATES.

George Washington,	1789
John Adams,	1797
Thomas Jefferson,	1801
James Madison,	1809
James Monroe,	1817
John Q. Adams,	1825

VICE-PRESIDENTS OF THE
UNITED STATES.

John Adams,	1789
Thomas Jefferson,	1797
Aaron Burr,	1801
George Clinton,	1805
Elbridge Gerry,	1813
Daniel D. Tompkins,	1817
John C. Calhoun,	1825

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.*

B. C.

- 4004 CREATION. *Creatogo.*
- 2348 THE FLOOD. *flotok.*
- 2247 Babel.
- 2217 Babylon founded by Nimrod, and Nineveh by Ashur.
- 2188 Egypt founded by Mizraim or Menes. *Mizrahoo.*
- 1996 Abraham. *Abranous, 175.*
- 1926 CALL OF ABRAHAM. *Abvocanes.*
- 1897 Destruction of Sodom, &c.
- 1896 Isaac. *Isakous, 180.*
- 1836 Jacob and Esau. *Jakis, 147*
- 1822 Argos, founded by Inachus. *Inaked.*

* The numbers after the names of persons denote the length of their lives; after wars, &c. their duration.

B. C.

- 1800 China, founded about this time.
 1745 Joseph. *Josepol*, 110.
 1728 Joseph, sold into Egypt.
 1715 Promotion of Joseph.
 1705 Jacob's removal to Egypt.
 1571 Moses. *Mosupa*.
 1556 Athens, founded by Cecrops. *Cecralus*.
 1546 Troy founded.
 1506 Sparta, founded by Lelex. *Lalais*.
 1491 DELIVERANCE OF ISRAEL from Egypt.
 1453 Olympic Games, first celebrated in Greece.
 1451 ISRAEL'S ENTERING CANAAN.
 1263 Argonautic expedition. *Argonadaut*.
 1257 Cities of Attica, united by Cecrops. *Cecradup*.
 1252 Tyre built.
 1245 Gideon, Judge of Israel.
 1184 Destruction of Troy. *Traboof*.
 1160 Samson, 28.
 1139 Samuel. *Samabin*.
 1085 David, 70.
 1069 Death of Codrus.
 1067 David, anointed at Bethlehem.
 1055 David, k. at Hebron, 40. *Dabailu*
 1048 David, k. of all Israel.
 1021 Death of Absalom.
 1017 David's attempt to number the Hebrews
 1015 Solomon k. of all Israel, 40.
 1004 DEDICATION of the Temple. *Templago*.
 975 Jehoiada, 130.
 — [F] Rehoboam, k. of Judah. *Rehoboupu*.
 — Jeroboam, k. of the Ten Tribes, called Israel in distinction from Judah.
 971 Temple, &c. plundered by Shishak.
 958 [F] Abijam k. of Judah, 3.
 957 Battle of Zemaraim, supposed to have been the most bloody of battles. *Zemaranup*.
 955 [F] Asa, k. of Judah. *Asanul*, 31.
 954 Nadab, k. of Israel.
 953 Baasha, k. of Israel.
 945 Zerah, defeated by Asa.
 930 Elah, k. of Israel.
 929 Zimri, k. of Israel.
 — Omri, k. of Israel.
 918 Ahab, k. of Israel. *Ahabnap*.
 914 [F] Jehoshaphat, k. of Judah. *Jehoshanaf*.
 907 Prophets of Baal, slain by Elijah.
 901 Samaria, besieged by Benhadad.
 899 Death of Naboth.
 897 Ahaziah, k. of Israel.
 896 Jehoram, k. of Israel.
 889 [F] Jehoram, k. of Judah. *Jehokoon*.

B. C.

- 885 ☞ Ahaziah, k. of Judah. *Ahazikool.*
 884 Jehu, k. of Israel.
 — ☞ Athaliah, queen of Judah. *Athalooko.*
 — Lycurgus, k. of Sparta. *Likooko.*
 878 ☞ Joash, k. of Judah.
 869 Carthage, founded by Dido, 723.
 856 Jehoshaphat, k. of Israel.
 841 Joash, k. of Israel.
 840 Jonah, a prophet, about this time.
 839 ☞ Amaziah, k. of Judah.
 825 Jeroboam II. k. of Israel.
 814 Macedon, founded by Caranus, 646. *Carakaf.*
 810 ☞ Azariah, or Uzziah, k. of Judah.
 795 Amos, a prophet, 11
 786 Hosea, a prophet, 63.
 784 Interregnum of Israel.
 776 First Olympiad. *Olympois.*
 773 Zachariah, k. of Israel.
 772 Shallum, k. of Israel.
 — Menahem, k. of Israel
 761 Pekahiah, k. of Israel.
 759 Pekah, k. of Israel.
 758 ☞ Jotham, k. of Judah. *Jothoiloo.*
 — Isaiah, a prophet, 52.
 753 ROME founded. *Romput.*
 — Romulus, k. of Rome, 38.
 747 Death of Sardanapalus.
 — Belesis, or Nabonassar, k. of Babylon, 14.
 — Arbaces, or Tiglathpileser, k. of Assyria, 19. *Tiglathpop.*
 743 Micah, a prophet, 43.
 743 First Messenian war, 19.
 742 ☞ Ahaz, k. of Judah. *Ahazpod.*
 742 Jerusalem, besieged by Rezin and Pekah.
 739 Interregnum of Israel, 9.
 730 Hoshea, k. of Israel.
 728 Shalmaneser, k. of Assyria, 19. *Shalmanepok.*
 727 ☞ Hezekiah, k. of Judah, 29. *Hezekipep.*
 726 Hezekiah's reformation.
 721 Captivity of the Ten Tribes.
 720 Joel, a prophet, about this time.
 715 Sennacherib, k. of Assyria, 8. *Sennachepal.*
 — Numa Pompilius, k. of Rome, 43. *Numapal.*
 714 Sennacherib's first invasion of Judah.
 — Hezekiah's sickness.
 710 Nahum, a prophet, about this time.
 — Destruction of 185,000 Assyrians.
 709 Dejoces, first k. of Media.
 706 Esarhaddon, k. of Assyria, 39. *Esarhadpais.*
 698 ☞ Manasseh, k. of Judah. *Manasnoo.*
 685 Second Messenian war, 14.
 680 Assyria and Babel, united under Esarhaddon.

B. C.

- 672 Tullus Hostilius, 3d k. of Rome.
 667 Saosduchinus, k. of Babylon, 20.
 656 Phraortes, 2d k. of Media, 22.
 643 ☞ Amon, k. of Judah, 3.
 640 ☞ Josiah, k. of Judah, 30. *Josisoz*.
 — Ancus Martius, 4th k. of Rome.
 634 Cyaxares I. 3d k. of Media.
 633 Commencement of Josiah's reformation.
 — Upper Asia, invaded by the Scythians.
 628 Jeremiah, a prophet, 41.
 625 Nabopolassar, k. of Babylon, 19.
 623 Laws of Draco.
 616 Tarquin the Elder, 5th k. of Rome.
 612 Destruction of Nineveh.
 — Zephaniah, a prophet.
 609 Habakkuk, a prophet, about this time.
 — ☞ Jehoahaz, k. of Judah.
 — ☞ Jehoiakim, k. of Judah.
 606 BABYLONISH CAPTIVITY. *Babsais*
 — Captivity of Daniel, &c.
 606 Nebuchadnezzar, k. of Babylon, 45.
 603 Daniel, a prophet, 69.
 598 ☞ Jehoiachin, k. of Judah. *Jehoalouk*.
 — Jehoiachin's captivity.
 — ☞ Zedekiah, k. of Judah. *Zedekilouk*.
 595 Ezekiel, a prophet, 21.
 594 Astyages, k. of Media.
 — Pharaoh Hophra, k. of Egypt.
 588 Jerusalem destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar.
 — Lamentations of Jeremiah.
 587 Obadiah's vision, about this time.
 578 Servius Tullius, 6th k. of Rome, 44.
 — Solon's laws, observed at Athens, 400.
 573 Tyre taken by Nebuchadnezzar.
 569 Insanity of Nebuchadnezzar.
 561 Evilmerodach, k. of Babylon.
 — Jehoiachin released from prison. See Jer. 52: 31.
 560 Pisistratus, tyrant of Athens.
 559 Neriglissar, k. of Babylon, 3.
 559 Cyaxares II. or Darius k. of Media, 36.
 556 Laborosoarchod, k. of Babylon.
 555 Nabonadius, or Belshazzar, k. of Babylon.
 549 Sardis taken by Cyrus.
 548 All Asia Minor subjected to Cyrus.
 539 Babylon taken by Cyrus.
 538 Darius, k. of Babylon, 5.
 536 Cyrus, k. of Persia, and of Babylon. *Cylis*, 8.
 — RETURN of the Jews from captivity.
 — Joshua, high priest of the Jews.
 535 Rebuilding of the second Temple, begun.
 534 Rebuilding of the Temple, obstructed by the Samaritans.

B. C.

- 534 Tarquin the Proud, 7th k. of Rome.
 529 Cambyses, k. of Persia. *Cambylen*.
 521 Darius Hystaspes, k. of Persia. *Darius Hystalda*.
 520 Zechariah, a prophet, 2c.
 — Haggai, a prophet.
 — Rebuilding of the Temple, resumed by the Jews.
 517 Revolt of the Babylonians from Darius Hystaspes.
 516 Babylon, taken by Darius. .
 515 Second Temple, dedicated.
 513 War of Darius Hystaspes against the Scythians.
 510 Thrace, ravaged by Scythians.
 — Hippias, expelled from Athens.
 509 The Tarquins, expelled from Rome.
 506 India, conquered by Darius Hystaspes.
 502 Aristagoras and the Ionians revolt from Darius.
 501 Confederacy of Athenians and Ionians against Darius Hystaspes.
 500 Sardis burnt by the Athenians, commencement of 51 years' war with the Persians.
 497 The Ionians reduced by the Persians.
 494 First expedition of Mardonius against the Greeks.
 490 Battle of Marathon. *Marathonai*.
 486 Xerxes, k. of Persia.
 480 Invasion of Greece, by Xerxes.
 — Battle of Salamis, Oct. 20.
 479 Battles of Platea and Micali, Sept 22.
 473 Death of Pausanius
 471 Themistocles banished.
 470 Battle of Eurymedon.
 465 Third Messenian war, 10.
 464 Artaxerxes Longimanus, or Ahasuerus.
 462 Vashti divorced.
 458 Esther, queen of Ahasuerus.
 — Ezra sent to Judea.
 456 Cincinnatus, dictator at Rome.
 452 Death of Haman.
 451 Two books of Chronicles supposed to have been written by Ezra.
 — Written laws first introduced into Rome.
 449 Peace between the Greeks and Persians; close of the 51 years' war.
 448 First Sacred War between the Phocians and Thebans.
 445 Nehemiah sent to Judea.
 433 Nehemiah's return to Persia.
 431 Peloponnesian war, 27.
 430 Plague at Athens.
 428 Nehemiah goes to Jerusalem the second time
 — Plato. *Plafek*, 80.
 423 Darius Nothus.
 420 Malachi, a prophet.
 405 Battle of Egos Potamos, Dec. 13.

B. C.

- 405 Artaxerxes Mnemon, k. of Persia.
 404 Athens taken, and its walls destroyed, by Lysander,
 May 16.
 — Thirty Tyrants of Athens.
 400 Retreat of the 10,000 Greeks.
 — Death of Socrates.
 — Thirty Tyrants expelled by Thrasybulus.
 393 Walls of Athens, rebuilt by Conon.
 385 Rome, burnt by Brennus.
 371 Lacedemonians, vanquished at Leuctra, by the Thebans.
 363 Battle of Mantinea. *Mantisia*.
 360 Philip, king of Macedon, 21.
 357 Second Sacred War with the Phocians, 9.
 356 Alexander, 32
 343 War between the Romans and Samnites, 71.
 338 Battle of Cheronæa. *Cheronitoo*.
 336 Philip, murdered by Pausanias.
 — Alexander, king of Macedon.
 335 Darius Codomanus, king of Persia, 5.
 — Thebes, destroyed by Alexander.
 334 Battle of Granicus. *Granito*.
 333 Battle of Issus. *Issiti*.
 332 Tyre and Gaza, destroyed by Alexander.
 331 Battle of Gaugamela. *Gaugamita*.
 — Alexander, k. of Persia. *Alexita*.
 330 Death of Darius Codomanus.
 — Palace of Persepolis, burnt by Alexander.
 328 Porus, defeated by Alexander.
 323 Death of Alexander.
 304 Ptolemy Soter, king of Egypt
 301 Battle of Ipsus.
 300 Antioch founded by Seleucus.
 285 Ptolemy Philadelphus, k. of Egypt, 38.
 281 Achean League. *Achean Leka*.
 280 Italy invaded by Pyrrhus.
 277 Septuagint translation of the Old Testament.
 274 Pyrrhus, driven from Italy.
 272 Samnites, subdued by the Romans.
 264 First Punic war. 23.
 260 Victory of Duillius.
 255 Regulus, defeated by Xantippus.
 241 End of the first Punic war.
 225 Gaul, conquered by Marcellus.
 219 Saguntum, taken by Hannibal.
 218 Second Punic war, 17.
 217 Scipio, Sempronius and Flaminius, successively defeated by
 Hannibal.
 216 Battle of Cannæ.
 206 Philopoemen, pretor of the Acheans.
 203 Hannibal recalled
 202 Battle of Zama *Zamdaid*.

B. C.

- 175 Antiochus Epiphanes, k. of Syria.
 170 Jerusalem plundered by Antiochus Epiphanes.
 168 Jews persecuted by Antiochus Epiphanes.
 — Antiochus Epiphanes resisted by Matthias and his sons.
 167 Martyrdom of the seven Maccabean brothers and their mother.
 166 Judas Maccabeus, prince of Judea.
 165 Jerusalem recovered, and the daily worship restored by Judas Maccabeus.
 160 Jonathan, prince of Judea.
 149 Third Punic war, 3.
 147 Achæans defeated by Metellus
 146 Corinth taken by the Romans.
 — Destruction of Carthage.
 143 Simeon, prince of Judea.
 135 John Hyrcanus, prince of Judea.
 133 Death of Tiberius Gracchus.
 — Numantia taken.
 121 Death of Caius Gracchus
 111 Jugurthine war, 3.
 108 Jugurtha defeated by Marius.
 106 Aristobulus, prince of Judah.
 105 Alexander Janneus, prince of Judah.
 103 Jugurtha starved to death, at Rome.
 102 Teutones and Cimbrians, defeated by Marius.
 89 Mithridatic war. *Mithradoon*.
 88 War between Marius and Sylla. *Mario-Syllakoo*.
 86 Mithridates, defeated by Sylla.
 82 Sylla, perpetual Dictator.
 78 Resignation and death of Sylla.
 — Alexandra, princess of Judah.
 77 War of Sertorius.
 72 Mithridates repeatedly defeated by Lucullus, and Pontus, reduced to a Roman province.
 70 Crassus and Pompey, Consuls.
 63 Jerusalem, taken by Pompey.
 62 Catiline's conspiracy, quelled by Cicero
 59 First Triumvirate, Pompey, Crassus and Cesar.
 55 Cesar's first landing in Britain.
 54 Cesar invades Britain the second time, and conquers part of it.
 53 Crassus, killed by the Parthians.
 51 Gaul, reduced to a Roman province.
 49 Cesar's passing the Rubicon. *Rubicon*,
 48 Battle of Pharsalia. *Pharsalok*.
 46 Death of Cato.
 44 Death of Cesar.
 43 Second Triumvirate, Octavius, Antony and Lepidus.
 42 Battle of Philippi, in which Brutus and Cassius are defeated.
 37 Herod the Idumean, confirmed on the throne of Judea.
 32 War declared by the Senate against Antony and Cleopatra.
 31 Battle of Actium.
 30 Octavius, emperor of Rome. *Augustai*.

B. C.

- 30 Death of Antony and Cleopatra.
- 27 Octavius called Augustus.
- 5 John the Baptist.
- 4 Birth of Jesus Christ.

A. D.

- 1 Vulgar era, from which we reckon time, placed by mistake four years after the birth of Christ.
- 14 Tiberius, emp of Rome. *Tiberibc*
- 26 Ministry of John the Baptist^t
- Christ, baptized by John.
- Imprisonment of John the Baptist.
- 27 Death of John the Baptist.
- 28 Transfiguration of Christ.
- 29 Crucifixion of Christ.
- Effusion of the Spirit, on the day of Pentecost.
- Death of Ananias and Sapphira.
- 31 Death of Stephen.
- 33 Conversion of Saul of Tarsus.
- 37 Caligula, emp. of Rome. *Caligulip.*
- 41 Conversion of Cornelius.
- Claudius, emp. of Rome. *Claudifa.*
- 43 Expedition of Claudius into Britain.
- 44 Death of James, the brother of John.
- 45 Paul's preaching at Salamis, Paphos, &c.
- 46 Paul's preaching at Iconium.
- 51 Caractacus, carried to Rome.
- 52 Apostolic council at Jerusalem.
- 54 Paul and Silas, at Philippi.
- Nero emp. of Rome. *Nelo.*
- 55 Paul at Thessalonica and Athens.
- 56 Paul at Corinth.
- 60 Mob at Ephesus.
- Romans, defeated by Boadicea.
- Paul at Troas, Miletus, &c.
- Paul's defence to the people of Jerusalem.
- Paul before the council at Jerusalem.
- Paul before Felix at Cesarea.
- 63 Paul before Festus at Cesarea.
- Paul before Agrippa at Cesarea.
- Paul sent to Rome.
- 64 Rome, burnt by Nero.
- First of the ten heathen persecutions of Christians before Constantine, under Nero.
- 66 Death of Paul about this time.
- 70 Vespasian, emp. of Rome.
- Jerusalem taken and destroyed, by Titus.
- 79 Titus, emp. of Rome.
- Herculaneum and Pompeii, destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius.
- 80 Conquests of Agricola in Britain.

A. D

- 81 Domitian, emp. of Rome.
 95 Second of the ten persecutions, under Domitian.
 98 Trajan, emp. of Rome.
 107 Third of the ten persecutions, under Trajan.
 117 Adrian, emp. of Rome.
 120 Adrian's Wall, built across Britain
 130 Jerusalem, rebuilt by Adrian.
 135 580,000 Jews in Judea destroyed by the Romans.
 138 Antoninus Pius, or Antonine the Pious, emp. of Rome.
 161 Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, emp. of Rome.
 163 Fourth of the ten persecutions, under Aurelius.
 168 A plague over the known world.
 177 Persecution of Christians at Lyons.
 180 Commodus, emp. of Rome.
 193 Pertinax, emp. of Rome.
 202 Fifth of the ten persecutions, under Septimus Severus.
 222 Alexander Severus, emp. of Rome, 13.
 — About this time, the Roman Empire begins to decline; the
 Barbarians make more frequent irruptions; and the Goths
 receive tribute not to molest the Romans.
 235 Maximin, emp. of Rome, 3.
 — Sixth of the ten persecutions, under Maximin.
 250 Seventh of the ten persecutions, under Decius.
 254 Valerian, emp. of Rome.
 257 Eighth of the ten persecutions, under Valerian.
 270 Aurelian, emp. of Rome, 5.
 273 Ninth of the ten persecutions, under Aurelian.
 273 Zenobia, taken captive by Aurelian.
 277 Settlement of the Franks in Gaul.
 284 Diocletian, emp. of Rome. *Diocleko*.
 303 Last of the ten persecutions, under Diocletian.
 306 Constantine the Great, emp. of Rome. *Constantais*.
 308 Creation of cardinals.
 312 Pestilence all over the East.
 325 First general council at Nice.
 329 Seat of the Roman Empire, removed to Constantinople.
 337 Death of Constantine.
 358 150 cities in Asia and Greece, overturned by an earthquake.
 360 First monastery, founded near Poitiers, by Martin.
 361 Julian, emp. of Rome. *Julisa*, 3.
 363 Vain attempt of Julian to rebuild Jerusalem.
 — Jovian, emp. of Rome. *Jovisi*.
 364 Division of the Roman empire.
 — Valentinean, emp. of the West. *Valentiso*.
 — Valens, emp. of the East.
 373 Bible, translated into Gothic.
 379 Theodosius the Great, emp. of the East. *Theodotein*, 16.
 392 Empire, united under Theodosius.
 395 The empire again divided. Arcadius, emp. of the East, and
 Honorius, of the West.
 397 Chrysostome, patriarch of Constantinople.

A. D.

- 400 Italy, ravaged by Alaric.
 410 Rome, plundered and burnt, by Alaric.
 411 Vandals settled in Spain.
 419 Many cities in Palestine, destroyed by an earthquake.
 426 Britain, forsaken by the Romans.
 439 Italy, plundered by Genseric.
 444 Ravages of the Huns.
 446 *The Groans of the Britons.*
 447 Italy, ravaged by Attila.
 451 Arrival of Hengist and Horsa, in Britain.
 452 Venice founded.
 455 Rome, plundered by Genseric.
 476 Romulus Augustus, called *Momyllus Augustulus*, last emp. of the West. *Momylfois.*
 — Extinction of the Western Empire.
 — Odoacer, k. of Italy.
 480 Earthquake at Constantinople, 40 days.
 481 Clovis, k. of the Franks. *Cloka.*
 493 Theodoric, k. of Italy. *Theodoni.*
 496 Baptism of Clovis.
 508 Reign of Arthur in Britain.
 510 Paris, the capital of Clovis.
 516 Computation of time from the Christian era, introduced by Dionysius, the monk.
 526 250,000 persons destroyed by an earthquake at Antioch.
 527 Justinian, emp. of the East. *Justinilep.*
 529 Persians, defeated by Belisarius.
 537 Rome, taken by Belisarius.
 540 Destruction of Antioch by the Persians
 542 Europe, ravaged by the plague 52 years.
 546 Rome, taken and plundered, by Totila.
 547 Rome, retaken by Belisarius.
 549 Rome, recovered by Totila.
 552 Rome, taken by Narses.
 559 Belisarius, degraded and ungratefully treated, by Justinian.
 568 Italy, conquered by the Lombards.
 569 Turks, first mentioned in history.
 571 Mahomet. *Mahupa*, 61.
 580 Destruction of Antioch by an earthquake.
 590 Gregory I. bishop of Rome.
 597 Augustine, missionary to England.
 605 Use of bells, introduced into churches.
 606 **POPERY AND MAHOMETANISM.** *Papamahomsais.*
 616 Jerusalem, taken by the Persians.
 622 The Hegyra. *Hegysed.*
 632 Death of Mahomet.
 636 Jerusalem taken by the Saracens under Omar.
 641 Alexandrian library burnt by the Saracens under Omar.
 669 Sicily ravaged by the Saracens.
 672 Constantinople besieged by the Saracens.
 673 Venerable Bede, 62.

A. D.

- 685 Remnant of the Britons, totally subdued by the Saxons, and driven into Cornwall and Wales.
- 690 Pepin Heristal acquires the chief power in France.
- 713 Spain, conquered by the Saracens.
- 714 France governed by Charles Martel, 26.
- 726 Controversy about images.
- 732 Destruction of the Saracens in France, by Charles Martel.
- 751 Pepin, k. of France.
- 762 Bagdad, built by Almanzor, and made the seat of the caliphs
- 772 Charlemagne, k. of France.
- 785 Saxons subdued by Charlemagne.
- Haroun al Rashid, caliph of the Saracens.
- 787 England, first invaded by the Danes.
- 794 The Huns extirpated by Charlemagne.
- 800 Charlemagne, emp. of Germany, 14. *Charlemoog.*
- 801 Harold of Denmark, deposed by his subjects, for professing Christianity.
- 827 Egbert, k. of England.
- 846 An earthquake over the greatest part of the known world.
- 872 Alfred, k. of England. *Alfroope.*
- 886 Oxford University.
- 915 Cambridge University.
- 991 Figures in Arithmetic, brought by the Saracens from Arabia into Europe.
- 1015 Laws in England against parents' selling their children.
- 1017 Canute, k. of England.
- 1055 Bagdad, taken by the Turks.
- 1066 Harold the Usurper, k. of England.
- ☞ William the Conqueror, k. of England. *Wilbaisau.*
- 1070 Feudal law, introduced into England.
- 1075 Penance of Henry IV. emp. of Germany.
- 1080 Tower in London.
- 1087 ☞ William II. k. of England. *Wildaikoi.*
- 1093 Pilgrimage of Peter the Hermit.
- 1096 FIRST CRUSADE to the Holy Land.
- 1098 Antioch, taken by the Crusaders.
- 1099 Jerusalem, taken by the Crusaders.
- 1100 ☞ Henry I. surnamed *the Scholar*, k. of England. *Henbag.*
- 1119 Thomas a Becket. *Becketban*, 52.
- 1135 ☞ Stephen, k. of England. *Stephabil.*
- 1141 Stephen, taken captive by Matilda.
- 1143 Restoration of Stephen.
- 1144 Second Crusade.
- 1154 ☞ Henry II. k. of England. *Hendablo.*
- 1156 Moscow built.
- 1157 Bank of Venice commenced
- 1163 Gengis Khan born.
- 1171 Death of Becket.
- 1172 Henry II. takes possession of Ireland.
- 1176 Gengis Khan, k. of the Tartars, 51. *Gengabois.*
- 1183 Massacre of 7000 Albigenses.

A. D.

- 1186 Conjunction of all the planets, at sunrise, Sept. 16. *Conjunctaboos.*
- 1187 Jerusalem, taken by Saladin.
- 1189 ☞ Richard I. k. of England. *Richaboou.*
- Third Crusade.
- 1192 Saladin, defeated by Richard, in the battle of Ascalon.
- 1195 Devastation of Denmark and Norway, by a tempest.
- 1199 ☞ John, k. of England.
- 1204 Constantinople, taken and plundered by the French and Venetians.
- Baldwin I. French emp. of Constantinople.
- Inquisition. *Inquezo.*
- 1214 Roger Bacon. *Roger Badaf, 80.*
- 1215 Magna Charta, or Great Charter. *Chardal.*
- 1216 ☞ Henry III. k. of England. *Hentadas.*
- 1224 Thomas Aquinas, 50. *Aquidef.*
- 1226 Lewis IX. (St. Lewis) k. of France. *St. Lewdes.*
- 1228 Baldwin II. French emp. of Constantinople.
- 1241 Hanseatic League, begun by Lubec and Hamburg.
- 1248 Fifth Crusade.
- 1258 Bagdad, taken by the Tartars. End of the Saracen empire.
- 1261 Constantinople, recovered by the Greek emperors.
- 1264 Deputies of boroughs, first summoned to parliament in England
- Battle of Lewes, between Henry III. and his barons.
- 1272 ☞ Edward I. surnamed *Longshanks*, k. of England. *Eddadoid.*
- 1291 Twelve competitors for the crown of Scotland.
- 1292 John Baliol, k. of Scotland.
- 1298 Wallace, regent of Scotland.
- Commencement of the Turkish empire under Othman, in Bithynia.
- 1299 Spectacles invented by a monk of Pisa.
- 1301 First meeting of the States General in France.
- 1302 Invention of the Mariner's Compass. *Compize.*
- 1304 Death of Wallace.
- 1306 Robert Bruce, k. of Scotland.
- 1307 Swiss republics founded.
- Pit-coal first used in England.
- ☞ Edward II. k. of England. *Eddataip.*
- 1308 Pope's removal to Avignon.
- 1311 Death of Piers Gavestone.
- 1324 John Wickliffe. *Wicktief, 64.*
- 1327 ☞ Edward III. k. of England. *Edtatep.*
- 1328 Geoffrey Chaucer. *Chautek, 72.*
- 1330 Gunpowder invented by a monk of Cologne.
- 1335 Tamerlane, born.
- 1337 Europe, infested by locusts.
- 1344 Most general and fatal plague, ever known.
- 1346 Battle of Cressy. The French defeated by the Black Prince. Cannon first used. *Crestos.*
- 1349 Pestilence, that destroyed myriads of Asiatics, and nearly one third of Europeans.—*Hu. 2 : 295.*

A. D.

- 1352 Europe, invaded by the Turks.
- 1353 Asia and Africa desolated by locusts.
- 1356 John II. of France, taken prisoner in the battle of Poitiers.
- 1361 Plague in France, England, Ireland, Scotland, &c. which destroyed nearly a third of the Scots.
- 1365 Collection of Peter Pence, forbidden by the English government
- 1369 Tamerlane, k. of the Tartars. *Tamertaun*, 36.
- 1370 Hanseatic League at its height, consisting of 64 cities with 44 in alliance.
- 1376 John Huss, 39. *Hustois*.
- 1377 Pope's return from Avignon to Rome.
- Richard II. k. of England. *Richdatoip*.
- 1380 Thomas a Kempis, 91.
- 1381 Insurrection of Wat Tyler.
- 1382 Many cities in Europe, depopulated by the Plague.
- 1384 Death of Wickliffe.
- 1399 Henry IV. k. of England. *Henfatoun*
- 1400 University of Dublin.
- 1402 Battle of Angora. *Angoze*.
- 1403 Battle of Shrewsbury, between Henry IV. and young Piercy.
- 1407 Joan of Arc, 24.
- 1410 Wickliffe's works, burnt at Oxford.
- 1412 Algebra brought from Arabia into Europe.
- 1413 Henry V. k. of England. *Henlafat*.
- 1414 Council of Constance.
- 1415 Battle of Agincourt. *Aginfal*.
- Ordinary revenue of Henry V. £56,960, equal to \$232,863.
- Death of John Huss.
- 1416 Death of Jerome of Prague.
- 1418 Death of Lord Cobham.
- 1421 The Zuyder Sea, formed by an inundation.
- 1422 Henry VI. k. of England. *Hensode*.
- Charles VII. k. of France.
- 1428 The English, compelled to raise the siege of Orleans, by Joan of Arc.
- Wickliffe's remains, burnt, and his ashes thrown into the river Swift.
- 1436 Paris recovered from the English, by the French.
- 1444 Invention of printing about this time.
- 1446 Vatican library, founded.
- The sea breaks out at Dort, and drowns 100,000 people.
- 1447 Columbus born, 50. *Columfop*.
- 1448 Lorenzo de Medicis, 44.
- 1453 Constantinople, taken by the Turks.
- 1454 University of Glasgow.
- 1457 Glass, first manufactured in England.
- 1459 Art of engraving on copper.
- 1461 Edward IV. k. of England. *Edfosa*.
- 1470 Hugh Latimer, 84.
- 1471 Thomas Wolsey. *Wolsopa*, 59
- 1472 Copernicus. *Copernope*, 71.

A. D.

- 1476 Certain persons obtain license from Edward IV. to make gold and silver from mercury.
- 1477 University of Aberdeen.
- 1480 Thomas More, 55.
- 1483 ☞ Edward V. k. of England. *Edufoot*.
- ☞ Richard III. k. of England. *Richtafoot*.
- Martin Luther. *Lutherfoot*, 63.
- 1485 Battle of Bosworth.
- ☞ Henry VII. *Henroifool*.
- 1487 Zuingle. *Zuingfoop*, 44.
- 1488 Cape of Good Hope, discovered by the Portuguese.
- 1489 Thomas Cranmer. *Cranfoon*, 67.
- 1490 Thomas Cromwell, 50.
- 1491 End of the kingdom of the Moors in Spain.
- 1492 San Salvador, discovered by Columbus, Oct. 12, Cuba, Oct. 27, Hispaniola, Dec. 6.
- 1493 Maximilian I. emp. of Germany.
- Second voyage of Columbus to America.
- 1494 Jamaica, discovered by Columbus.
- 1496 Commission for discovery, granted by Henry VII. to John Cabot and his three sons.
- 1497 North America, discovered by John and Sebastian Cabot.
- Melancthon, 63. *Melancthonoi*.
- The Portuguese sail to the East Indies.
- 1498 Third voyage of Columbus to America.
- American continent, discovered by Columbus, at Cumana.
- 1499 South America visited by Americus Vesputius.
- 1500 Birth of Charles V.
- 1502 Fourth voyage of Columbus to America.
- 1505 John Knox. *Knoxuza*, 67.
- 1508 League of Cambray, against the Venetians.
- Negro slaves, imported into Hispaniola.
- 1509 ☞ Henry VIII. k. of England. *Henroovain*.
- John Calvin, 55. *Calvain*.
- 1511 Cuba, conquered by 300 Spaniards.
- 1513 Battle of Flodden, in which James IV. was slain.
- Leo X. pope.
- 1514 Pestilence among cats.
- 1515 Francis I. k. of France.
- 1516 Charles V. k. of Spain.
- 1517 THE REFORMATION. *Reformalap*.
- Patent, granted by Charles V. for importing negro slaves into America.
- 1518 Doctrines of Luther, condemned by Leo X.
- 1519 Charles V. emp. of Germany. *Charlesvuan*.
- Mexico, invaded by Cortes.
- 1520 Massacre at Stockholm, by Christian II.
- Death of Montezuma.
- Solyman the Magnificent, emp. of Turkey.
- 1521 Gustavus Vasa, k. of Sweden.
- William Cecil, Lord Burleigh. *Cecileb*, 77.

A. D.

- 1521 Conquest of Mexico, completed by Cortez.
 — Henry VIII. receives from the pope, the title of *Defender of the Faith*.
- 1522 John Jewell, 49.
- 1525 Battle of Pavia. Capture of Francis I.
- 1526 Lutheranism established in Germany.
 — Liberation of Francis I.
- 1529 Reformers, called *Protestants*.
- 1530 Protestant League of Smalcald. *Smalcaltai*.
- 1531 Peru, invaded by Pizarro and Almagro.
- 1532 Robert Dudley, earl of Leicester, 56.
- 1533 Elizabeth born.
- 1534 Reformation in England and Ireland.
- 1535 Society of the Jesuits, instituted by Loyola.
- 1536 Suppression of the smaller monasteries in England.
 — Francis Walsingham, 54.
- 1537 California, discovered by Cortez.
- 1538 Suppression of the larger monasteries in England
- 1539 The Bloody Statute, or Law of the Six Articles.
- 1542 Mary Stewart, born and made queen of Scotland.
- 1544 Good land in England, let at one shilling an acre
- 1545 Council of Trent. *Trentufu*, 18.
 — Francis Drake. *Drakufu*, 51.
- 1546 Tycho Brahe, 55.
- 1547 ☞ Edward VI. k. of England. *Edsarop*.
- 1549 Death of cardinal Beaton.
 — Cervantes, 67.
- 1550 Era of English Puritans.
- 1551 James Crichton, 32.
- 1552 Books of Astronomy and Geography destroyed in England, as being infected with magic.
 — Walter Raleigh, 66. *Ralud*.
 — Book of common prayer, established in England.
- 1553 ☞ Mary, queen of England. *Maruli*.
- 1554 The wearing of silk, forbidden to the common people in England.
 — Death of Jane Grey.
- 1555 Persecution by Mary.
- 1556 Philip II. k. of Spain.
- 1558 ☞ Elizabeth, queen of England. *Elizaluk*.
- 1560 Charles IX. k. of France.
 — Reformation in Scotland, completed by John Knox.
- 1561 Francis Bacon. *Bacusa*, 65.
- 1563 Slave trade of the English, begun by John Hawkens.
- 1564 William Shakspeare. *Shakespuso*, 52.
 — Galileo, 78. *Galiluso*.
- 1566 Revolt of the Netherlands from Philip II.
 — 39 Articles established in England.
- 1567 James VI. k. of Scotland.
 — Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, 34.
- 1568 Flight of Mary, queen of Scots, to England.

A. D.

- 1568 Protestants tolerated in Holland.
 1572 Massacre of St. Bartholomew's. *Bartholomeupe.*
 1573 William Laud. *Laudupi*, 71.
 1575 John Robinson, 50. *Robinvoil.*
 1576 Protestants tolerated in France.
 1579 John Smith, 52.
 1580 James Usher, 75.
 1582 The new style, introduced into Italy, by pope Gregory XII.
 the 5th of Oct. being reckoned the 15th.
 1583 Hugo Grotius, 62.
 1584 Miles Standish, 72.
 1585 Richlieu, 57.
 — John Cotton.
 — First English colony in America, planted at Roanoke.
 — Jansenius, 53.
 1586 Colony at Roanoke, carried by Drake to England.
 — Thomas Hooker, 61.
 1587 Death of Mary, queen of Scots.
 — John Winthrop, 62.
 1588 Destruction of the Spanish Armada. *Armada look.*
 — William Bradford, 69.
 1589 Henry IV. k. of France.
 — Coaches introduced into England.
 1591 University of Dublin.
 1592 Presbyterianism, established in Scotland.
 1593 Thomas Wentworth, 48.
 1594 Birth of Gustavus Adolphus.
 — Edward Winslow, 61.
 — John Hamden. *Hampuno*, 49.
 1596 Des Cartes, 54.
 — Richard Mather, 73.
 1597 John Davenport, 73.
 1598 Edict of Nantz.
 1599 Robert Blake, 58.
 — Roger Williams, 84.
 1600 Birth of Charles I. of England.
 1602 William Chillingworth, 42.
 — Cape Cod discovered by Gosnold.
 — Revival of religion in some of the northern counties of England.
 1603 [F] James I. k. of England and Scotland. *Jambasait.*
 1604 John Eliot, 86.
 1605 Powder Plot.
 — Edmund Waller, 82.
 1607 First permanent English settlement in America, at Jamestown.
 — Flight of the Pilgrims to Amsterdam.
 — Smith saved by Pocahontas.
 — Colony at Sagadahok.
 1608 John Milton. *Milsaik*, 66.
 — Satellites of Jupiter, discovered by Galileo.
 — Removal of the Pilgrims to Leyden
 1609 Plot of the Indians, disclosed by Pocahontas.

A. D.

- 1609 Matthew Hale. *Halsain*, 67.
 1610 Lucius Carey, Lord Falkland, 34.
 — Henry IV. of France, assassinated by Ravallac.
 — The Virginia colony reduced from nearly five hundred to sixty.
 1611 Gustavus Adolphus, k. of Sweden.
 1613 Pocahontas, married to Mr. Rolfe.
 1614 Last meeting of the states general in France, before the late revolution.
 — North Virginia, called New England, by prince Charles.
 — Manhattan, now New York, settled by the Dutch.
 — 24 natives of N. E. carried off and sold by Hunt.
 1615 Richard Baxter.
 1616 John Higginson, 92.
 — John Owen.
 1617 Most of the inhabitants from Narraganset to Penobscot, swept away by war and pestilence.
 1618 Synod of Dort.
 — Abraham Cowley, 59.
 — Jacatra, now Batavia, taken and fortified, by the Dutch
 1619 Circulation of the blood discovered, or confirmed, by Harvey.
 1620 English settlement at Madras.
 — LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS, Dec. 22.
 1621 Batavia in Java, settled by the Dutch.
 — League between Massasoit and the Pilgrims.
 1622 Massacre of 347 Virginians by the natives, March 22.
 — Algernon Sidney. *Sidsed*, 61
 1623 First settlement in N. H.
 1624 George Fox. *Foxsef*, 66.
 — Settlement at Cape Ann.
 1625 Plague in London destroyed 35,000 persons
 — Charles I. k. of England. *Charlesbasel*.
 1626 Robert Boyle. *Boylsep*, 64. Bossuet, 77.
 1628 New Holland, discovered by the Dutch.
 — A new island among the Azores, emerged.
 — Patent for Mass. Settlement of Salem.
 — John Bunyan. *Bunsek*.
 1629 First church in Mass. formed at Salem.
 — Charlestown, Mass. settled.
 — First permanent settlement of the Dutch at Manhattan.
 1630 Isaac Barrow, 47.
 — Arrival of Gov. Winthrop at Massachusetts, with about 1500 emigrants.
 — John Flavel, 61.
 — Dorchester, Watertown, Boston, Roxbury.
 — John Tilotson, 64.
 1631 First vessel built in Mass. called *the Blessing of the Bay* launched July 4.
 — John Dryden. *Drydasti*, 70.
 1632 Patent of Maryland, granted to Cecilius Calvert, lord Baltimore.

A. D.

- 1632 John Locke. *Locksid*, 72.
- 1633 First house erected in Connecticut, near Little River in Windsor.
- 1634 Captains Stone, Norton, and eight others, murdered by the Pequot Indians, on Con. river.
- Maryland, settled by 200 Catholics.
- 1635 Removal of about 60 persons from Dorchester, Newtown and Watertown, to Windsor, Hartford and Wethersfield.
- Accession to Mass. of about 3,000 emigrants.
- Tremendous storm in N. E.
- China conquered by the Tartars
- Ship money first imposed by Charles I
- 1636 Hooker and Stone, with their people, remove from Watertow to Hartford.
- Providence, settled by Roger Williams.
- Henry Vane, Gov. of Mass.
- 1637 Slaughter of five or six hundred Indians at Mistic fort, by Mason, May 26.
- Destruction of the Pequot nation.
- First Synod at Newtown occasioned by Ann Hutchinson
- Public School in Newtown
- 1638 Harvard college founded and Newtown called Cambridge
- Solemn League and Covenant in Scotland
- New Haven settled.
- 1639 Constitution of Con.
- John Haynes, first governor of Con.
- Printing press at Cambridge.
- Increase Mather, 84.
- Benjamin Church, 79.
- 1640 Cessation of English emigration.
- Long parliament, Nov. 3.
- 1641 Irish Massacre, Oct. 23.
- Strafford beheaded.
- 1642 Battle of Edgehill.
- Isaac Newton. *Newsod*, 84.
- Mayhew in Martha's Vineyard.
- N. E. favoured by the English parliament
- 1643 Lewis XIV. k. of France, 72.
- Laud beheaded.
- Confederacy of the four N. E. colonies.
- Solomon Stoddard, 86.
- 1644 Revolution in China, by the Tartars.
- Patent for Providence Plantations.
- William Penn, 74. *Pensof*.
- 1645 Battle of Naseby. *Nasol*.
- 1646 Act of Massachusetts legislature for carrying the ~~gospa~~ *gospa* to the Indians.
- Elliot preaches to the Indians.
- Second Synod in Mass.
- 1647 Epidemic through America.
- 1648 Cambridge Placism.

A. D.

- 1648 Humphrey Prideaux, 76.
 1649 Charles I. beheaded, Jan. 30.
 — Commonwealth of England.
 — Society for propagating the gospel in N. E. formed in England.
 1650 Battle of Dunbar.
 — John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, 72.
 — Conversion of the Indians on Martha's Vineyard.
 1651 Battle of Worcester, won by Cromwell.
 — Fenelon, 64.
 — Sumptuary law in Mass.
 — English Navigation Act.
 1652 Voluntary submission of Maine to Mass.
 1653 O. Cromwell, protector of England.
 1655 Law, in Mass. requiring that "all hands not necessarily employed on other occasions, as women, boys and girls, should spin, according to their skill and ability."
 1656 John Hibbins of Boston, executed for witchcraft.
 — Persecution of the Quakers in Mass.
 1658 Richard Cromwell, protector.
 1759 Resignation of the protectorship, by Richard Cromwell.
 — Two Quakers, Robinson and Stephenson, executed in Massachusetts.
 1660 Charles II. k. of England. The Restoration.
 — Navigation Act confirmed, and extended.
 1661 Charles Rollin, 80.
 1662 Royal Society in England.
 — Matthew Henry. *Hensaua*, 52.
 — Synod in Boston.
 — Act of Uniformity, in England.
 1663 Massillon, 79.
 — Charter of Carolina, granted to Clarendon and others.
 — Prince Eugene, 73.
 — Cotton Mather, 65.
 1664 New Jersey, granted to Lord Berkely and George Carteret.
 — Elliot's Indian Bible printed at Cambridge.
 1665 Six towns of Christian Indians in Massachusetts.
 — Plague in London destroyed 68,000 people.
 — Union of New Haven and Con.
 1666 Great fire in London, which destroyed 13,000 houses.
 — Buccaneers in America.
 1667 Jonathan Swift, 78.
 — Erasmus, 69.
 1672 Calmet, 85.
 — Birth of Peter the Great.
 1672 Great part of Holland conquered by Lewis XIV.
 — Joseph Addison. *Addasoid*, 47.
 1673 Benjamin Colman, 74.
 1674 Edward Andros, Gov. of N. Y.
 — Death of the De Witts.
 — Isaac Watts. *Watspo*, 72.
 1675 War with Philip, k. of the Wompanoogs.

A. D.

- 1675 Samuel Clarke. *Clarksoil*, 54.
 1676 Death of k. Philip, Aug. 12.
 1677 Saurin, 53.
 — Bacon's rebellion in Virginia.
 1680 A great comet appeared, and from its nearness to the earth, alarmed the inhabitants. It continued from Nov. 3, to March 9.
 — N. H. separated from Mass.
 — Charleston in S. C.
 1681 Pennsylvania, granted to William Penn.
 — Edward Young, 84.
 1682 Philadelphia.
 — Peter the Great, czar of Russia.
 1684 Mass. deprived of its charter.
 — Handel, 75.
 1685 [F] James II. k. of England. *Jamdasku*.
 — Writs issued to take away the charters of Con. and R. I.
 — Revocation of the edict of Nantz.
 — Number of praying Indians within the limits of Plymouth colony, 1439.
 1686 Newtonian philosophy published in England.
 — William Law, 75.
 1687 E. Andros, president of N. England.
 1688 N. Y. and N. J. added to the jurisdiction of N. England.
 — War with the Indians in N. England, which continued several years.
 — Revolution in England, commonly called THE REVOLUTION.
 — Alexander Pope, 56.
 1689 William III. and Mary, king and queen of England, Feb. 16. *Wiltasoon*.
 — Act of Toleration in England.
 — Deposition of Andros.
 — Swedenborg, 83.
 1690 Battle of the Boyne.
 1692 White inhabitants in N. E. 200,000.
 — New charter granted to Mass.
 — Witchcraft in Mass. 20 persons executed.
 1694 Voltaire, 84.
 1696 Thirty Indian churches in N. E.
 — Parliamentary tax upon the colonies recommended.
 — Henry Home, (Lord Kaims,) 86.
 — Church removed from Dorchester, Massachusetts, and settled at Dorchester, South Carolina.
 — Peter the Great, sole emperor of Russia.
 1697 Peace of Ryswick.
 1698 Number of Indians in Massachusetts about 4,000.
 — Charles XII. k. of Sweden.
 — English Christian Knowledge Society.
 1699 Great numbers of Philadelphians die of the yellow fever.
 — Population of Boston. 7,000.

A. D.

- 1700 James Thompson, 48. *Thompzai*.
 — Population of the English American colonies, 160,000.
 — Inundation in Charleston S. C. which drove the inhabitants to their chambers. The city almost destroyed by fire, and the people by small pox and pestilence.
 — Law in N. Y. to hang every Popish priest, who should come voluntarily into that province.
 — Yale College founded at Saybrook.
 1701 Society for propagating the gospel in foreign parts incorporated.
 — Yale College incorporated.
 1702 ☞ Anne, queen of England. *Annapaid*.
 — Philip Doddridge, 49.
 1703 Gibra'tar taken by Rooke.
 — John Wesley, 88.
 — Jonathan Edwards, 55.
 1704 Battle of Blenheim, Aug. 2.
 — David Hartley, 53.
 — Thomas Newton, 78.
 1705 Danish Missionary Society.
 — Petersburg founded.
 1706 Union of England and Scotland.
 — Benjamin Franklin, 84.
 1707 Euler, 76.
 — Linneus, 71.
 1708 Saybrook Platform.
 — William Pitt, 70.
 1709 Battle of Pultowa.
 — Samuel Johnson. *Johnpain*, 75.
 1710 Thomas Reed, 86.
 — James Ferguson. *Fergupaz*, 66.
 1711 David Hume. *Humoiba*, 65.
 1712 137 people in the vicinity of Roanoke, murdered by the Tuscaroras, &c.
 — Rousseau, 66.
 1713 Treaty of Utrecht.
 1714 ☞ George I. k. of England. *Georgeboibo*.
 — James Hervey, 44.
 — George Whitefield, 56.
 1715 Lewis XV. k. of France.
 — David Garrick, 63.
 1716 Barthelemy, 79.
 1717 One of the greatest snow storms ever known.
 — Yale College removed from Saybrook to New Haven.
 — New Orleans founded.
 1718 Hugh Blair, 82.
 — Israel Putnam, 72.
 — David Brainerd, 29.
 1719 Joseph Bellamy, 71.
 1720 South Sea Bubble.
 — Jonathan Mayhew, 46.
 1721 Inoculation for the small pox in New England.

A. D.

1721 Mark Akenside. *Akensoida*, 49.

— Samuel Hopkins, 82.

1722 A hurricane reduced Port Royal in Jamaica, the third time to a heap of ruins.

— John Witherspoon, 72.

— Samuel Adams, 81.

1723 Richard Price, 68.

1724 Samuel Davies, 37.

1725 William Blackstone. *Blackstapet*, 57.1726 John Howard, *Howpes*, 64.

— James Wolfe, 33.

1727 ☞ George II. k. of England. *Georgedapep*.

— Dry summer, followed by a violent earthquake.

— James Bowdoin, 63.

1728 People of Charleston, S. C. driven by an inundation to the upper stories of their houses.

— James Cook. *Cookoidoo*, 51.1729 Oliver Goldsmith. *Goldpen*, 45.— Edmund Burke. *Burkpen*, 68.

1730 Turks, defeated by Kouli Khan.

1731 William Cowper. *Cowpoita*, 69.

— Beilby Porteus, 78.

1732 Washington born, Feb. 22, 67.

— Richard Henry Lee, 62.

— Erasmus Darwin, 70.

1733 Joseph Priestley, 71.

1734 Moravian Missionary Society.

1735 Ravages of the throat distemper in New Hampshire and Massachusetts.

— John Adams, 91.

1736 Kouli Khan, k. of Persia.

1737 John Hancock, 56.

— Insurrection of slaves in South Carolina.

— Edward Gibbon, 57.

1738 Nassau Hall College, at Princeton, New Jersey.

1740 Charles Cornwallis. *Cornwalpik*, 67.

— Nathaniel Greene, 46.

— Joseph Warren, 35.

1743 Lavoisier, 51.

— William Paley, 62.

1744 Joseph Milner, 53.

— Jeremy Belknap, 54.

1745 Louisburg surrendered to the New England troops, aided by an English squadron, June 17.

— Francis Drake.

1746 Lima destroyed by an earthquake, whose concussions continued, with short intervals, for four months.

1747 Thomas Scott.

1748 Charles James Fox, 58.

— William Jones, 46.

1749 David Ramsay, 66.

A. D.

- 1750 Academy of Sciences, at Stockholm.
 — New Style introduced into Britain, Sept. 3 being reckoned the 14th.
- 1752 Hurricane and inundation at Charleston, S. C. Sept.
 — Population of Boston, 17,574.
- 1752 Small pox in Boston. Of 5,544, who had it the natural way, 514 died; of 2,109, who were inoculated, 31 died.
 — Timothy Dwight, 65.
- 1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake.
 — Great earthquake, the most violent ever known in North America.
 — Defeat and death of Braddock, at Monongahela, June.
- 1756 War between France and England.
- 1758 Louisburg taken by the British.
 — Horatio Nelson, 47.
 — Fisher Ames, 50.
- 1759 Quebec, taken by the English. Wolfe and Montcalm killed.
 — William Pitt, Jr. 47.
- 1760 Population of New England, 500,000.
 — ☞ George III. k. of England. *Georgetapauz.*
- 1762 Severest drought ever known in America; no rain, from May to September.
- 1763 Peace between Britain, France and Spain.
 — Indians within the limits of old Plymouth colony, 905.
 — Catharine II. empress of Russia.
- 1764 Charter of Rhode Island College, now Brown University.
- 1765 STAMP ACT, Jan. 10.
 — Franklin's electrical discovery.
 — Population of Boston, 15,250.
- 1767 Duties on paper, glass, painters' colours and teas.
- 1768 Hurricane at Havana, which destroyed 4144 houses and 1000 inhabitants.
- 1769 Non-importation agreement among the colonies.
 — Dartmouth College.
- 1770 Duties on glass, paper and painters' colours, repealed.
 — Boston Massacre, March 5.
- 1771 Insurrection of the Regulators in New England.
- 1772 Poland, dismembered by Russia, Prussia and Austria.
 — The schooner *Graspee*, burnt at Providence, June 10.
 — Committee of Correspondence in Boston, Nov. 22, the basis of the subsequent union of the colonies.
- 1773 St. Jago de Guatimala swallowed up by an earthquake, which destroyed 8000 families.
 — Destruction of British tea in Boston harbour.
- 1774 Boston Port Bill, May 13.
 — Arrival of Gov. Gage in Boston, May 13.
 — First continental Congress, Sept. 5.
- 1775 Leslie's expedition to Salem.
 — Lexington battle, April 19.
 — Ticonderoga, taken by the provincials, May 10.
 — Arrival of Howe, Burgoyne and Clinton at Boston, May 25.

A. D.

- 1775 Battle of Bunker Hill, or rather Breed's Hill, June 17.
 — Washington's arrival at Cambridge, July 3.
 — Continental fast, July 20.
 — Falmouth burnt by the British, Oct. 17.
- 1776 Norfolk burnt by the British, Jan. 1.
 — Worcester heights, occupied by Americans, March 4.
 — Boston evacuated by the British, March 17.
 — Washington's arrival at N. Y. April 14.
 — Lee's motion in Congress for a declaration of independence, June 7.
 — Declaration of Independence, July 4.
 — Commissioners sent by Congress, to Paris, to solicit a treaty with the French.
 — British army landed at Long Island, Aug. 22.
 — Battle on Long Island, Aug. 27.
 — New-York, evacuated by the Americans, and possessed by the British, Sept. 15.
 — 1000 houses burnt in New York.
 — Battle of White Plains, Oct. 28.
 — Retreat of Washington beyond the Delaware, Nov. 28.
 — R. I. possessed by the British, Dec. 8.
 — Congress adjourned to Baltimore, Dec. 12.
 — Battle of Trenton, Dec. 26.
- 1777 Washington takes post at Trenton.
 — Battle near Princeton, Jan. 3.
 — Washington retires to Morristown.
 — The Americans receive arms and ammunition from France.
 — Ticonderoga evacuated by the Americans, July 6.
 — Bennington battle, Aug. 16.
 — Battle of Brandywine, Sept. 11.
 — Battle near Stillwater, Sept. 19.
 — Philadelphia, possessed by the British, Sept. 27.
 — Battle of Germantown, Oct. 4.
 — Second battle near Stillwater, Oct. 7.
 — Capture of Burgoyne, Oct. 17.
 — Battle of Red Bank, Oct. 22.
- 1778 Treaty between France and the U. S. Feb. 6.
 — Philadelphia, evacuated by the British, June 18.
 — Battle of Monmouth, June 28.
 — Arrival of D'Estaing on the coast of Virginia, with 12 ships of the line and 6 frigates, and French troops, to aid the Americans.
 — Battle on R. I. Aug. 29.
 — Americans, driven from R. I. Aug. 30.
 — Savannah, taken by the British, Dec. 29.
- 1779 New Haven, plundered by the British, July 5.
 — Capt. Cook killed at Owhyhee by the natives.
 — Fairfield and Green Farms in Ct. burnt by the British, July 7; and Norwalk, July 12.
 — Stoney Point taken from the British, July 16.
- 1780 Charleston, S. C. taken by the British, May 12.
 — Battle near Camden, S. C. Aug. 16.

A. D.

- 1780 Treachery of Arnold.
 — Execution of Andre.
 — American Academy of Arts and Sciences
 — British Naval and Military Bible Society.
 — Dark day in N. E.
 — War between Hyder Ally and the English.
 — Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.
 — Insurrection in London, on account of an act for relieving the Papists.
- 1781 Battle of Cowpens, Jan. 17.
 — Battle of Eutaw, Sept. 8.
 — Expedition of Arnold against Virginia and New London.
 — New London burnt, Sept.
 — Phillips Academy, Exeter, N. H.
 — Capture of Cornwallis, Oct. 19.
- 1782 Independence of the U. S. acknowledged by Holland, Ap. 19.
 — Balloons invented by S. and J. Montgolfier, France.
- 1783 Independence of the U. S. acknowledged by Sweden, Denmark, Spain and Prussia.
 — Peace with Great Britain, Sept. 23.
 — N. Y. evacuated by the British, Nov. 25.
 — American army disbanded.
 — Abolition of slavery in Mass.
 — Dickenson College.
- 1786 Wesleyan Missionary Society, England.
 — Insurrection in Mass.
 — Insurrection in N. H.
- 1787 Federal constitution, agreed on in Congress, Sept. 17.
 — Franklin College, at Lancaster, Pa.
 — Columbia College, New-York city.
- 1789 George Washington and John Adams first President and Vice President of the United States, April 30.
 — FRENCH REVOLUTION.
 — First meeting of the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States, May.
 — Destruction of the Bastile, July 14.
 — National Assembly in France, Oct. 19.
- 1790 Population of the United States, 3,929,326.
 — Slaves in the United States, 695,655.
 — Monastic establishments suppressed in France.
 — Kentucky, an independent state.
 — Nobility abolished in France.
 — Connecticut Society for the Abolition of Slavery.
- 1791 Vermont admitted into the Union.
 — Vermont University.
 — Revenue of the United States \$4,771,200. Expenditure, \$3,797,436.
 — People of colour made free citizens in France, May 15.
 — Society for the promotion of agriculture, arts and manufactures established at New York.
 — Flight of Lewis XVI. June 21.


A. D.

- 1791 New constitution of France, accepted by the king, Sept. 13.
 1792 Kentucky admitted into the Union, Jan. 1.
 — Massachusetts Agricultural Society.
 — Baptist Missionary Society in England.
 — Swiss guards massacred at Paris, Aug. 10.
 — National Convention, Sept.
 — Abolition of royal authority, and France declared a republic.
 — French decree of fraternity, promising to aid all people, who wish to procure liberty, Nov. 19.
 1793 Lewis XVI. condemned to death by a majority of five voices, Jan. 17; executed Jan. 21.
 — The queen of France condemned Oct. 15; executed, Oct. 16.
 — Williams College.
 1794 Insurrection in Pennsylvania.
 — Treaty with Great Britain, called *Jay's treaty*.
 — Death of Robespierre.
 — Union College, in New-York.
 — Greenville College, Tennessee.
 1795 Holland, overrun by the French.
 — Cape of Good Hope, taken by the British.
 — London Mission Society.
 1796 Paul, emperor of Russia.
 — Edinburgh Missionary Society.
 — Netherlands' Mission Society.
 1797 John Adams and Thomas Jefferson second President and Vice President of the United States.
 1798 Papal government, suppressed by the French.
 — Battle of the Nile, Aug. 1.
 — Connecticut Missionary Society.
 1799 Bonaparte, First Consul for 10 years, Nov. 9.
 — London Religious Tract Society.
 — Massachusetts Missionary Society.
 — Death of Washington, Dec. 14.
 1800 Battle of Marengo, June 14.
 — Union of Britain and Ireland.
 — Church Missionary Society, in England.
 — Battle of Hohenlinden, Dec. 3.
 1801 Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr, third President and Vice President of the United States.
 — Alexander, emperor of Russia.
 — Missionary Seminary at Gosport.
 1802 Catholic religion, re-established in France.
 — Peace of Amiens, March 27.
 — Bonaparte, declared First Consul, for life.
 1803 War between Britain and France, May 16.
 — British Foreign School Society.
 1804 British and Foreign Bible Society, March 7.
 — Hibernian Bible Society.
 — Bonaparte, emperor of France, May 3.
 — The emperor of Germany assumes the title of *Emperor of Austria*.

A. D.

- 1805 Bonaparte, k. of Italy.
 — George Clinton, fourth Vice President of the United States.
 — Berlin Bible Society.
 — Battle of Trafalgar.
- 1806 Lewis Bonaparte, k. of Holland.
 — Abolition of the slave trade, voted by the British Parliament.
 — Francis II. resigns the office of Emperor of Germany.
 — Battle of Jena, Oct. 14.
 — British and Foreign School Society.
- 1807 African Institution, in England.
 — Andover Theological Seminary.
- 1808 Abolition of the slave trade in the United States.
 — Philadelphia Bible Society.
 — Bonaparte seizes Portugal; and the royal family flee to Brazil.
 — Royal family of Spain, seized by Bonaparte.
 — Jews' Society in England.
- 1809 James Madison, fourth President of the United States.
 — Swedish National Bible Society.
 — Battle of Talavera, July 28, 29.
 — Connecticut Bible Society.
- 1810 Holland, annexed to France.
 — Population of the United States, 7,339,903.
 — American board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. Incorporated 1812.
 — Baptist Board for Foreign Missions, United States.
- 1811 Prince of Wales, regent of Britain.
 — English National Education Society.
- 1812 War between Britain and the United States, June 18.
 — Sunday School for Ireland.
 — Prayer Book and Homily Society, in England.
 — Russia, invaded by Bonaparte.
 — Spanish Inquisition, abolished by the Cortes.
 — New-York Religious Tract Society.
 — Battle of Smolensko.
 — Battle of Borodino, or Mosqua, Sept. 7.
 — Moscow entered by the French, Sept. 14.
 — Princeton Theological Seminary.
- 1813 Perry's victory on Lake Erie, Sept. 10.
 — Elbridge Gerry, fifth Vice President of the United States.
 — Battle of Leipsic, Oct. 19.
 — New England (now American) Tract Society.
 — France, entered by the Russians, &c. Dec. 23.
 — Russian Bible Society.
- 1814 The pope, released from prison, by Bonaparte.
 — Massachusetts Baptist Education Society.
 — American Baptist Missionary Society.
 — Capitulation of Paris, to the Allies, March 30.
 — Paris entered by the Allies, April 1.
 — Connecticut Education Society.
 — Bonaparte dethroned, April 4; and Banished to Elba.
 — Entry of Lewis XVIII. into Paris, May 3.

A. D.

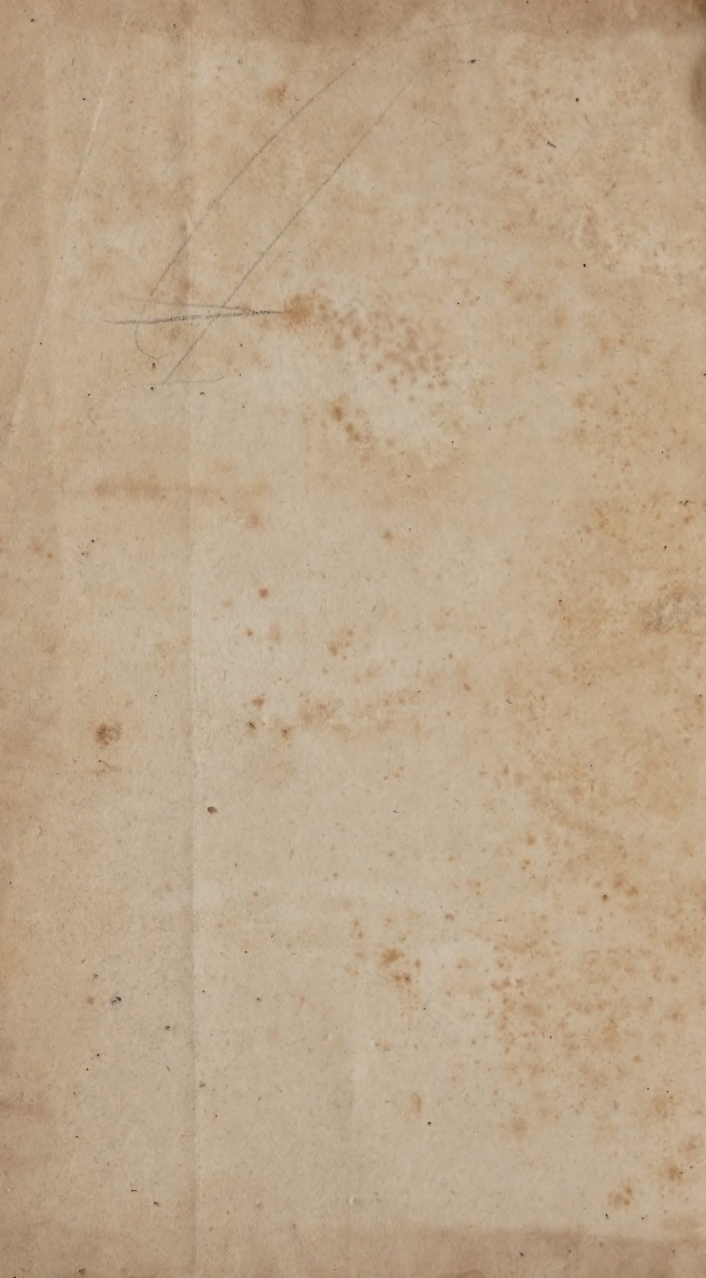
- 1814 General peace in Europe, May 30.
 — Inquisition restored in Spain, July 18.
 — Washington City, taken by the British, Aug. 24.
 — British squadron on Lake Champlain, captured by M'Donough, Sept. 11.
 — General Congress of Vienna.
 — Treaty of Ghent, signed Dec. 24.
 — The British, repulsed at New Orleans, Dec. 23.
 — Prussian Bible Society.
 — Norwegian Bible Society.
 — Saxon Bible Society.
 — Danish Bible Society.
 — Swedish Bible Society.
 — Hanoverian Bible Society.
 — Geneva Bible Society.
- 1815 The British defeated, and Packenham slain at New Orleans, Jan. 8.
 — Treaty of Ghent ratified, Feb. 24.
 — Bonaparte's escape from Elba, Feb. 26; landing in France March 1; arrival at Paris, March 26.
 — Battle of Waterloo, June 17 and 18.
 — Sleswick-Holstein Bible Society.
 — Astrachan Bible Society.
 — Bonaparte at St. Helena, Oct. 13
 — Basle Missionary College.
 — American Education Society.
- 1816 American Bible Society.
 — New-York Sunday School Union.
 — Hartford Evangelical Tract Society.
 — Polish National Bible Society.
 — Netherlands National Bible Society.
 — Indiana admitted into the Union, Dec.
- 1817 American Colonization Society, Jan. 1.
 — James Monroe, fifth President of the United States.
 — Daniel D. Tompkins, sixth Vice President of the United States.
 — Western Education Society.
 — United Foreign Missionary Society, in America.
 — Malta Bible Society.
 — Bernadotte, k. of Sweden.
- 1818 Gottengen Bible Society.
 — Presbyterian Education Society, in America.
 — New-York Baptist Education Society.
 — Baptist Theological Seminary, at Washington.
 — France evacuated by the Allies, Oct.
 — Paris Bible Society.
- 1819 Illinois admitted into the Union, Dec. 4.
 — Maine Baptist Education Society.
 — Athens Bible Society.
 — Methodist Episcopal Missionary Society, in the United States.
 — Alabama admitted into the Union.
- 1820  George IV. k. of Britain. *Georgefakes.*

A. D.

- 1820 Population of the United States, 9,625,734.
— Free constitution in Spain.
— Maine admitted into the Union.
— Foreign Mission Society, Switzerland.
— Revolution in Greece.
- 1821 Death of Bonaparte, May 5.
— Missouri admitted into the Union.
- 1822 Iturbide declares himself emperor of Mexico.
— Massacre of Greeks in Scio.
— Don Pedro, son of the king of Portugal, declared emperor of
 Brazils.
— United Domestic Missionary Society in New-York.
- 1823 Iturbide dethroned and banished to Italy.
- 1824 Visit of La Fayette to the United States.
- 1825 John Quincy Adams, sixth President of the United States.
— John C. Calhoun, seventh Vice President of the United States.
— National Tract Society, at New-York.
— Death of Alexander of Russia, Dec. 1.
- 1826 Nicholas, emperor of Russia.
- 1827 Battle of Navarin, Oct. 21.









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